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DEVELOPMENT WORKERS AS KNOWLEDGE WORKERS –
A STUDY OF FINNISH DEVELOPMENT WORKERS IN NAMIBIA

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ABSTRACT

In the 21st century poverty still remains a pressing matter for the majority of the human population. However, as development is not anymore measured only by monetary wealth communities are evaluated by measures of social conditions and humanitarian wellbeing, as well as, their abilities to create, share and use knowledge. As development organisations tackle several challenges in the development sector, organisational efficiency has become a key tool for achieving more successful development interventions. As the business sector has identified knowledge management (KM) as a key to competitive advantage the development sector is also seeking to enforce their interventions through KM.

This thesis addresses the needs of KM in the development sector from the viewpoint of the business sector; especially looking at knowledge stickiness that was originally described by Szulanski in relation to intrafirm knowledge transfers. This explorative study examines knowledge transfers between Finland and Namibia from the viewpoint of knowledge workers. Qualitative methods were used to analyze the data collected through semi-structural interviews.

The theory of knowledge stickiness was found to be useful in investigating knowledge transfer in the development sector. However, knowledge transfer alone was found to be insufficient in addressing the inadequacies in KM in the development sector. Furthermore, it was found that situated learning complements knowledge transfer in addressing the specific needs discovered in the literature review and empirical data.

KEYWORDS: Knowledge Transfers, Knowledge Stickiness, Development Sector, Situated Learning, Namibia

1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the background and the structure of the study. The chapter further describes the research questions and objectives, as well as defines the scope of the study.

1.1 Background of the Study

In 2015 an estimated 700 million people were living under the poverty line of \$1.90 a day. Even though progress to reduce poverty has been made in the past 15 years, some of the largest problems in the development sector remain in the unevenness in shared prosperity and the existence of ultra-poverty. Poverty remains a problem for around 40 percent of the global population and Sub-Saharan Africa accommodates the most of the poorest people in the world. (World Bank Group 2016.)

In 2015 the net official development assistance (ODA) from the OECD countries was \$131.6 billion. The amount has been increasing for the past 15 years (OECD 2015.) With the increasing figures invested into the development sector there has been a rising interest into whether or not development programs and aid actually work. One area of research focuses on the efficiency of development work. An area that has been studied from different points of view ranging from ethical and moral perspectives, to finding the true triggers behind poverty and questioning the true need and future of the development sector. (Collier 2008; Easterly 2007; Riddell 2007.)

Another area of research focuses around the nature of management of organisations working within the development sector. As the efficiency of traditional development work was questioned development organisations had

to start looking more into their organisational practices and organisational effectiveness. The notion that increasing aid alone in monetary terms will not help fight poverty called for reforms in development practices. (Fowler 1997.) In the core of the reforms was the new participatory approach that encourages local stakeholders to take ownership of the development interventions, as well as, improve the way aid is managed by the receiving countries. In addition, donor countries are summoned to manage interventions more efficiently by more result-based approaches and by aligning and harmonizing funding and the implementation of development programs. Furthermore the reforms called for increased mutual accountability where both the donor, as well as, the receiving country are together responsible for the development outcomes. (OECD 2006.)

Furthermore, the concept of poverty is seen as a more complex issue than a lack of basic needs and funds. Development is no longer measured by economical means alone but also by measures of social conditions and humanitarian wellbeing; the communities' capacities and abilities to create, use and access knowledge. (Ferguson, Huysman, & Soekijad 2010.) Development is portrayed as a social learning process, where communities must take ownership of action. Understanding the past and planning for the future to avoid redoing past mistakes calls for efficient knowledge management (KM) strategies and local communities and each country should take responsibility for their own development and strengthen their own capabilities. As the role of social improvement and humanitarian wellbeing has become essential measuring tools of development, simultaneously, economical factors cannot be overlooked since no country can escape poverty without economic growth (Collier 2008, 8).

This new perspective of communities (mostly Southern communities) taking ownership of their own development resulted into development agencies (mostly Northern) to recognize that their main duty was no longer to provide the recipients with aid in the form of food and other services but to strengthen the capabilities and abilities of the recipients. The new approach called for a more knowledge-based view of development work where not only transferring knowledge from outside the societies was important but also understanding how societies create, share and utilize knowledge is essential. The knowledge-based view of development work underlines that knowledge is an important asset and that only by understanding how knowledge is used in societies, one can take part in battling poverty and improving lives. (Le Borgne & Cummings 2009; Ferreira & Neto 2005). Ferreira & Neto (2005) divide the goals of KM in development work into two sections. The first goal is targeted towards development professionals and how development originations can learn faster and use knowledge to do a better job. Secondly, targeted towards social actors and development practitioners in developing countries the second goal aims to improve social learning and knowledge as a tool towards sustainable development goals (Ferreira & Neto 2005).

In 1996 World Bank (WB) President James Wolfensohn announced that the World Bank would take a knowledge-based approach to reducing global poverty. The World Bank would become a knowledge bank that would aid the poorest countries in the world to gain economic progress. The bank's concept was to build on the initial idea of knowledge being the fundamental foundation of any developed nation and global economy. Even though the World Bank represents only one dimension of international development work, the recognition of knowledge as an asset advanced the position of KM in developmental studies. (Cohen & Laporte, 2004.)

Furthermore, the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) created a knowledge management strategy specifically for its development work in 2014. UNDP Knowledge Management Strategy Framework 2014-2017 was formulated to better acknowledge the importance of KM in implementing knowledge as a business asset, as well as, using knowledge to achieve UNDP's strategic development goals. (United Nations Development Programme 2014.)

Although there are numerous managerial theories for business, managerial theories for non-profit organisations are limited. One reason for this might be the fact that defining non-profit organisations is challenging. (Anheier 2014.) There is a need to explore the objectives of knowledge management, which differ, between the development field and corporate settings (Ferguson, Mchombu & Cummings 2008). This need is especially relevant since Finland along with other OECD countries, is increasingly channeling their official development aid through private sector cooperation rather than experienced development organisations (Ministry for Foreign Affairs 2016).

Defining development organisations is challenging. However one significant factor has been that development organisations function as non-profit organisations where organisational efficiency is measured with other means than profit making. Development organisations cover a wide range of actors who aim to support national or international development priorities, are based on cooperation with different stakeholders both national and international and favor developing nations. The wide range of different organisation, as well as, different approaches and instruments to achieving development has also made it difficult to provide valid and sufficient organisational theories for development organisations. (Anheier 2014.)

Due to the transition from industry-based societies to knowledge-based societies in the past 20 years, interest towards knowledge management (KM) has risen and organisations identify knowledge as a key asset. (Bresman, Birkinshaw & Nobel 1999; Jasimuddin 2012.) In the past decade knowledge has been recognized also as a key asset in the development sector. The traditional sender-receiver setting has changed to an approach where development stakeholders, with a localized approach, are in the core of development cooperation. (Ferguson, Huysman, & Soekijad 2010.) Similarly, as aid in the form of food and other commodities is no longer in the core of development work, development workers have to possess a set of skills to be able to support the developing nations rather than act as sole providers. Knowledge-based development work is based on a participatory approach where the receiving countries capacities are developed. As mentioned there are several approaches to knowledge-based development work: capacity support which can be delivered in the form of cooperation between research and educational institution, policy building advise and support, support of local NGO's both financially, as well as, through training and education to mention some. (Ferreira & Neto 2005.)

On a more local level the Finnish Development Policy states that Finnish development cooperation is strongly based on Finnish know-how and has a focus on projects where both the Finnish funding and know-how have strong demand (Ministry for Foreign Affairs 2016). Therefore, the role of knowledge is crucial and only with efficient management systems can sustainable development be achieved. However, the application of KM in the development sector is built upon the current business management and organizational

theories and has not taken fully into consideration the special challenges of the development sector. (Ferguson et al. 2010; McFarlane 2006.)

1.2 Research Problem, Questions and Objectives

As the field of strategic management has identified KM as a competitive advantage in business (Argote and Ingram 2000; Grant, 1996; Spender 1996), the development sector has followed suit. Knowledge management is seen as an essential tool to enhance the effectiveness of development workers and their development inventions. Additionally, there is a greater need to understand what the role of knowledge is in development work and how it is used in practice. Even though there has been a growing amount of policies and the importance of knowledge management has been recognized in the development sector, there is still a lack of understanding of the relationship between knowledge and development impact. (Ferguson et al. 2010.)

While there has been growing interest towards KM in the development sector, previous studies have concentrated mostly on knowledge transfer as an objective and universal process overlooking the social constructs (McFarlane 2006). There has been a shift in development work from a traditional sender receiver setting to a more participatory approach. However, KM theories have not been fully able to address how the participatory approach can be implemented into the KM practices in the development sector. (Ferguson et al. 2010.)

In addition to the new participatory approach, the changes in the development sector call for use of more local knowledge. As the discipline of KM rose from the corporate world (mostly Northern) development practitioners have criticized the use of Northern knowledge and practices, as well as, the

problematic relationship between knowledge and power. As donors usually possess both the funds, as well as, the knowledge the receiving countries need to accept the terms of the donor countries and these can be unbeneficial for the receiving country but also simultaneously suppress local knowledge and innovation. (Ferreira & Neto 2005; Powell 2006; Rossi 2004.) Local knowledge represents essential living knowledge that is created, used and distributed within communities and that is rigidly entwined into local culture, tradition, beliefs and ways of living. Furthermore, the difference between local knowledge is that it is created in a society that cannot be managed with management policies and leadership in the same way as in the corporate world and businesses corporate culture can be managed. (Ferreira & Neto 2005.)

Ferguson et al. (2010) argue that with current knowledge management practices the results are often negative and cause further marginalization of already disadvantaged people. Furthermore, the suitability of current knowledge management models must be studied to ensure that knowledge management contributes to successful development interventions. (Ferguson et al. 2010; McFarlane 2006.) Another important aspect related to knowledge and development work is to understand the origins of the knowledge used. The notion that development work is dominated by Northern discourses results into Northern knowledge being dominant and presented as the universal truth, this again can lead to the South being further discriminated as well as marginalized. As knowledge always contains both power and judgment development workers must be aware of the other existing discourses dominant in the South to be able to diminish inequality and achieve successful interventions. (Rossi 2004; Powell 2006.) What makes questioning the Northern discourses difficult is the fact that often Northern knowledge is distributed together with financial resources and very few receiving countries have the possibility to decline either

(Ferreira & Neto 2005). Nevertheless, the importance of transferring knowledge in the development sector should not be denied because it can play a central role in order to strengthen local capabilities. However, it is essential to focus on how the process is done, on knowledge flows and to identify patterns that dismiss local knowledge and support a “North knows best” approach. Understanding the importance of knowledge transfers towards development interventions, as well as, the nature of knowledge transfers plays a pivotal role in creating sustainable KM practices in the development sector.

Therefore, this thesis will contribute to the research of management studies by firstly taking a practical approach in the empirical part that focuses on knowledge transfers from the viewpoint of development workers as knowledge workers. The fundamental idea of KM in the development context is to use knowledge management and learning to enhance successful development interventions. Therefore, KM and learning can ultimately be used to make sustainable changes in the development beneficiaries, so that the beneficiaries themselves can capitalize on knowledge and learning and become self-sufficient. (Ferguson et al. 2010.)

Additionally, while there has been an increasing interest towards knowledge management in the development sector, there is a lack of research on the practical level of knowledge transfer. Where as expatriates working in MNC's and their role as knowledge workers have gained attention (Arthur & all. 2008; Bonache & Zárraga-Oberty 2008; Drucker 1996) international assignees working in the development sector have not been studied to the same extent.

This thesis will apply Szulanski's work on knowledge transfer focusing on stickiness factors (factors that demonstrate the complexity of knowledge

transfers: knowledge, source, receiver, context) and test the empirical data on the created framework based on the literature review. As Szulanski (2000) states, sharing and transferring knowledge is a complicated and time-consuming process. The thesis views knowledge transfer as a process that offers new insights of how development organizations manage knowledge at the worker level. Furthermore, the thesis will explore the internal and external factors that affect knowledge transfer. The study does however acknowledge that Szulanski's studies were conducted in the corporate sector and this can set limits to the direct applicability of the study results to the development sector. Therefore, complementary aspects of the social learning theory (Noorderhaven & Harzing 2009) and situated learning (Ferguson et al. 2010) are included.

Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2016) argue that the research question is one of the most important parts of your thesis. If the question is weak it will be impossible to draw valid and vigor results from the data to answer the question. (Saunders et al. 2016.) The subject of this thesis is knowledge transfer in development cooperation. The focus of the study is on development workers as knowledge workers in Southern Africa. Therefore, the research questions are:

RQ1: How does knowledge stickiness affect knowledge transfer from the global development worker's perspective?

RQ2: What additional insights can situated learning offer concerning the challenges of knowledge creation in development work settings?

To answer the research questions stated above, this study sets to explore literature to examine what kind of stickiness factors are present in knowledge transfers in the corporate setting. In addition, literature will be used to examine

the nature of knowledge, KM and specifically knowledge transfers in the development context. After the literature review the empirical part will further study knowledge in the development context from the viewpoint of development workers enhancing understanding and exploring, developing and creating a dialogue between existing theories.

1.3 Scope of the Study

The theoretical framework is limited to only core literature on knowledge transfer and development work. Therefore topics such as the effectiveness or justifications for development work will not be discussed. Furthermore, the literature on knowledge management will concentrate on the transfer aspect and the area of history of knowledge management in the business sector will be only discussed briefly. Knowledge creation and learning will be discussed in connection to situated learning.

As for the empirical data, it is collected only from different development-oriented projects in Namibia. Therefore, the aim is to gain understanding from the specific context rather than produce generalizable results. The data is also conducted only from the viewpoint of Finnish development workers covering a limited range of development work. In addition, it leaves the voices of other stakeholders (e.g. the recipient as in co-workers and the local communities) unheard.

1.4 Structure of the Study

This study consists of 6 main chapters. The first chapter is an introduction to the study; it presents the objectives, questions and justifications of the study. The

second chapter lays down the theoretical foundation of the study by presenting relevant literature and defining the fundamental terms used.

As the thesis has a multidisciplinary approach covering both management studies and the development sector, the theoretical framework is built on the literature provided by both fields. The key concepts in the thesis also rise from both fields. Even though there are similarities in both disciplines there are also underlying differences that make the traditional organizational knowledge management theories unfit for the development industry; therefore, the literature has been divided according to relevance. Additionally, chapter two concludes the two different disciplines to form a sufficient theoretical framework to be used to create dialogue with the empirical findings.

The third chapter discusses and justifies the research methodology and the underlying philosophical approach; in addition chapter 3 outlines the methods used for data collection, as well as, the method used for analyzing the data. The validity and reliability of the study will be discussed in the end of chapter three.

The results of the empirical data collected will be presented in chapter 4, however chapter 5 will present a more in-depth analysis of the results, as well as, a discussion of the findings.

Chapter 6 will conclude the study. The conclusion highlights the most significant findings and theoretical contributions, as well as, synthesizes the study. Furthermore, the last chapter illustrates the managerial implications that the study has and discusses the limitations and possibilities for further research.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature review introduces and discusses the main concepts of the study, creating the theoretical framework. Firstly, the concept of knowledge will be discussed, followed by organisational knowledge and the knowledge based view of organisations. The role of knowledge workers will be explored before we move onto exploring development work and the specific features that development setting can set to knowledge transfers. Secondly, knowledge transfer will be discussed in detail to clarify the term and its use in this study as well as the stickiness factor and different stages of transfer. The last part of chapter 2 summarizes the literature review and creates a conceptual framework.

2.1 Development Sector

Before having a closer look at what KM is in the development sector, the terms development sector and development work and several terms linked to the sector will be briefly discussed. Riddell (2007) defines development aid broadly as any action where resources from one country (donor) are transferred to promote economic and social development in another country. Alonso and Glennie (2015) use the term development cooperation and underline that development cooperation should not be profit driven and should aim to support international or national development priorities, create special opportunities for developing countries and function based on a cooperative relationships that supports ownership of the developing nations. In addition, Macrae (2012) defines humanitarian aid to be generally aimed at saving individual lives, whereas development aid supports structures and systems and has a more long-term approach.

As illustrated above the development sector involves several different terms. This thesis will follow the terminology used in the Finnish development policy (2016). It is relevant for this study because the empirical part of the study is conducted upon Finnish development workers who follow the Finnish policy. Therefore, this thesis follows the framework where humanitarian aid is considered as aid for people who are hit by disasters and are in need of immediate relief. (Ministry for Foreign Affairs 2016) Whereas humanitarian aid is a part of Finland's development cooperation, due to the limited scope of this study, humanitarian aid will be considered as a discipline of its own and it will not be included in the study. This study acknowledges development cooperation as *development work done with sustainable goals in cooperation with several stakeholders; governments, civil societies, companies, local authorities and citizens.*

The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) have often been set as a standard defining the current goals of organizations and people working in the development sector. Traditionally, the sector can be divided into different actors: 1. Large international organizations (United Nations (UN), WB, World Health Organization etc.). 2. Bilateral organisations (agreements between countries where traditionally one country is seen as rich and developed and the other one as poor and developing.) 3. Civil society actors (such as nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) that can be both large multinational organizations and small projects, community and country based structures.) 4. Individuals who can come from a wide range of professions and organisations such as professors from universities, health and education professionals, journalist, policymakers etc. (Ferguson & Cummings 2008.)

2.1.1 Development Work

In the 1960s the development sector was characterized by development being defined as modernization, where “developing” countries were to become more like the Western capitalist societies through a market led strategy of industrialization (Mchombu 2004, 14-15). Industrialization and economic growth were seen as the main creators and distributors of wealth within societies and development aid was channeled towards strengthening industries based on Western knowledge. (Collier 2008; Murray & Overton 2011). The Western development practice used a top to bottom approach in passing knowledge and information that was to change the cultures and societies of the developing countries to a more beneficial Western lifestyle (Mchombu 2004).

In the mid-1990s the development sector was influenced by a new way of thinking. Furthermore, the shift increased the recipient’s ownership and involvement in development strategies and encouraged long-term participatory projects with funding from the public and private sector, as well as, donors. (Murray & Overton 2011.) Mchombu (2004) writes about the shift from a macro-economic approach to a human development approach or people-centered development approach where development is measured with other means, not only economic development.

Today the macro-economic approach powered by traditional-aid has been mostly abandoned and a participatory approach supporting local ownership has become the main approach to development cooperation. Furthermore, learning, knowledge and skills are in the core of the new participatory approach and development organisations now identify their core mission to be the ability to access, generate and leverage specialized knowledge needed in the

development sectors. Development is seen as a process of empowerment of marginalized people through learning where peoples' own abilities are strengthened so that they have the capabilities to encounter the challenges in their own societies. (Ferguson & Huysman 2009.) Therefore, development is always dependent on the context and development can only be achieved if there is sufficient knowledge of the different aspects that affect the intended beneficiaries (Powell 2006).

Within the context of this thesis I adopt the view that the participation and ownership of development interventions of the receiving country and beneficiaries is fundamental. In addition, this thesis acknowledges that development work can be done through different international cooperation instruments besides the earlier mentioned, these being such as trade, foreign direct investment, migration, defense, diplomacy, and so on. However, for the applicability of the study the development work covered in this thesis is limited to different forms of work between Finland and Namibia.

2.2 Knowledge Management

The ability to create, acquire, share and transfer knowledge efficiently creates the core being of multinational enterprises (MNEs). In the era of knowledge, investments into R&D, design, software, human and organisational capital has become as important as investing into machinery and physical assets. Knowledge is seen as a rare resource and therefore, the ability to manage knowledge within organisations can give competitive advantages to companies. (Kogut & Zander 1992.)

As new technologies have emerged and communication and travel are faster than ever, companies have to be able to make sense of the constant change and

the large flow of data, information and knowledge. Knowledge management (KM) allows companies to react to the growing global competition and effectively manage what they know (Nonaka & Takeuchi 1995). Moreover, effective knowledge management reduces production costs, increases team performance and innovation increasing overall profitability (Wang & Noe 2010).

Krohinkel-Karlsson (2007) divides KM into two different approaches; KM tackling how organizations acquire, distribute, analyze, and store knowledge that is usually explicit and codified. This approach looks for solutions in ICT and everyday routines and tools that help top management. Another approach concentrates on identifying, sharing and transferring knowledge within and from outside of organisations. This field concentrated more on relations, factors that affect the flow of knowledge; features of knowledge, the sender, the receiver etc. Especially the later approach that studies flows and relations has turned the focus of KM towards a more holistic approach to organisational culture, climate and learning. (Krohinkel-Karlsson 2007.)

2.2.1 Features of Knowledge

Before one can meaningfully manage knowledge, the concept of knowledge must be defined. There are several different definitions of what knowledge is and definitions do not vary only between different disciplines and practices but also within disciplines. Within the scope of this study the aim is not to find a fundamental simple definition of what knowledge is but rather to study the characteristics and existence of knowledge from an organizational viewpoint. Additionally, this study views knowledge as an asset within organizations; both profit driven organisations, as well as, non-profit organisations with developmental goals. As much as there is variation within the definitions and

terms used within the discipline of knowledge management, there clearly is consensus that knowledge cannot be easily defined or managed and knowledge is complex. (Davenport & Prusak 1998, Nonaka 1994; Nonaka & Takeuchi 1995; Szulanski 1996.)

Data and information are fundamental terms that are often presented in relation with knowledge within the discipline of KM. However, the use of terms in relation to knowledge varies according to the user. Davenport and Prusak (1998) identify data as the most basic form of information; objective facts that can be simply recorded, stored and transferred around in different kinds of databases. Data is necessary for businesses but only when it is used and managed meaningfully. (Davenport & Prusak 1998, 2-3.)

Information is a more developed form of data; data with a meaning and purpose that is delivered to others as messages. One of the most fundamental differences of information compared to data is the fact that information has a sender and a receiver. Organizations have both official and unofficial networks and ways of sharing information and information is data that gets a meaning when it is both sent and received. (Davenport & Prusak 1998, 3-5.) According to Davenport and Prusak (1998) the fundamental difference that separates knowledge from data and information is that the value of knowledge can be evaluated by the actions that proceed from using knowledge; knowledge in action. Knowledge derives from information and the user of information always develops knowledge. (Davenport & Prusak 1998, 3-5)

Davenport and Prusak (1998) state that information transforms into knowledge when it is compared and connected to existing situations. Similarly knowledge is formed when the consequences of new information in action are observed

and considered, as well as, when information is engaged in conversations and people gain other people's opinions. Therefore, knowledge is embedded into human action and behavior; experiences, time, values. Furthermore, knowledge exists in social constructs. Moreover, knowledge in organizations and cannot primarily exist in databases and documents but fundamentally in the minds of working individuals, organizational behavior, norms, processes and practices. (Davenport & Prusak 1998.)

Building upon the same fundamental hierarchy of data, information and knowledge as stated Davenport and Prusak (1998), Bender & Fish (2000) add expertize to the top of the hierarchical structure. Arguing that when an individual deepens their knowledge and becomes personally involved knowledge is transformed into the form of expertize. Alternatively however, Wang and Noe (2010) use information and knowledge interchangeably without making any distinction between the two terms. Furthermore, in some cases the term knowledge is used to differentiate the unique features that KM has in comparison to managing information systems. (Wang & Noe 2010.)

Kogut and Zander (1992) define organisational knowledge as consisting of two entities; information and knowhow. Information is meanings, rules and facts that are known and understood within an organisational context. Knowhow is the ability to implement the knowledge and create outputs. Depending on the user, individual or group, information and knowhow take different forms and have different meanings. Figure 1 below illustrates the different meanings in different context.

	Individual	Group	Organization	Network
Information	-facts	-who knows what	-profits -accounting data -formal & informal structure	-prices -whom to contact -who has what
Know-how	-skill of how to communicate -problem solving	-recipes of organizing such as Taylorist methods or craft production	-higher-order organizing principles of how to coordinate groups and transfer knowledge	-how to cooperate -how to sell and buy

Figure 1. Information and Know-how. (Kogut & Zander 1992)

This thesis will apply the definition developed by Davenport and Prusak (1998) including the essential idea of knowledge being created and bound to people, as well as, knowledge leading to action. The active approach to knowledge means solving problems, developing ideas, implementing ideas and policies. Furthermore, in this study knowledge transfer is embedded into the behavior and actions of people, knowledge workers. (Davenport & Prusak 1998.) This definition is especially usable with the application of knowledge transfers, where the transfer aims to create change in the receiving unit (Argote & Ingram 2000).

2.2.2 Explicit vs. Tacit

One of the most significant contributions to the definition of knowledge was originally created by epistemologist Polanyi (1962) who identified the different forms of knowledge; explicit and tacit. The concepts of explicit and tacit knowledge represent two indisputably prominent terms in the discipline of KM. Explicit knowledge, also referred to as codified knowledge, is often described as being easy, formal and objective. Explicit knowledge is knowledge that a person or organisation can identify and that can be stored and transferred

in the form of texts, manuals and different kinds of databases. (Nonaka and Takeuchi, 1995.)

Tacit knowledge is described as being more complex and harder to transfer (Nonaka and Takeuchi, 1995). Nevertheless, tacit knowledge is essential for organisations and forms the basis for gaining competitive advantage. The problem is that tacit knowledge is embedded in individual members, organizational tasks, routines and it is hard to identify and codify. Furthermore, because of its complex nature, transferring tacit knowledge is difficult between units within multinational corporations, let alone between different organizational and national cultures. (Argote & Ingram 2000.)

It is also important to mention Nonaka's (1994) work with the SECI model (expanded by Nonaka and Takeuchi, 1995) a model of knowledge creation with four stages. The SECI model presents the different dimensions of knowledge, the creation and transformation of knowledge and fundamentally the idea of developing explicit knowledge into tacit knowledge and vice versa, creating new knowledge. Despite the positive contributions that the SECI model has delivered to the KM discipline it has also received critique. For example the notion of tacit and explicit knowledge existing independently and the development of explicit knowledge to tacit knowledge have been questioned and criticized. (Tsoukas & Vladimirou 2001; Tsoukas 2003.)

Beyond the identification of two different types of knowledge is the nature of knowledge. Explicit knowledge can be called objective whereas tacit knowledge always contains judgment, values and beliefs and is dependent on the community, society and human mind. Furthermore knowledge is forever

changing and developing (Nonaka 1994; Nonaka and Takeuchi 1995; Davenport and Prusak 1998, 9-12.)

2.2.3 Knowledge-based View of the Firm

KM in the business sector derives and builds on the knowledge-based view of the firm (Grant 1996, Spender 1996). According to the knowledge-based view of the firm the basic reason for firms to exist is to manage the knowledge of individuals. This individual knowledge is turned into an important strategic recourse within the context of an organisation to benefit the production of goods and services. (Grant 1996.) Therefore, the true competitive advantage within MNEs is their ability to manage what they know (Spender 1996). However, just knowing is not enough but knowledge must be transformed into capabilities that benefit a specific organizational context. Managing knowledge is not just about moving people and data around but it is about creating organisational culture that nurtures innovation, the creation and sharing of knowledge. (Kogut & Zander 1992.)

There are two main approaches to knowledge within organisations. Firstly, knowledge can be seen as an individual asset that workers have. Organisations collect and coordinate the knowledge and their ability to capture and utilize the individual knowledge within an organizational context creates the rare and unique recourse of knowledge. Secondly, knowledge within organisations can be seen as a result of a social process where it is hard to identify a clear knowledgeable sender and a receiver. (Kogut & Zander 1992; Nonaka 1994; Spender 1996.)

Tsoukas & Vladimirou (2001) state that the actual nature or organisational knowledge has not been thoroughly explored or defined. According to Tsoukas

& Vladimirou (2001) knowledge is always individual, for knowledge to be organisational and a desired recourse it must be built upon the collective organisation context. Additionally, organisational knowledge is both a recourse that is an ongoing social process, as well as, an outcome. (Tsoukas & Vladimirou 2001) Therefore, knowledge may not be transferred without considering the context. This aspect is especially critical in this study where the workers come from different countries, organisational and national cultures As Szulanski (1996) indicates, tacit knowledge may be sticky because of the context; applying knowledge to a new setting is difficult regardless of cultural differences. However, Bhagat, Kodua, Harveston and Triandis (2002) argue that cultural variations play a significant role in knowledge transfers. Furthermore cultural constraints affect how organisations transfer and absorb organizational knowledge, as well as, their absorptive capacities. (Bhagat et.al 2002.)

For companies to truly benefit from the competitive advantage they must be able to acquire and develop knowledge to use within the organisation when at the same time making sure those competitors do not gain the knowledge. Knowledge that is developed within organisations (rather than acquired knowledge) has been proven to be harder to imitate because it is embedded in organisational routines and tasks and therefore hard to transfer, identify or copy creating a true and rare recourse for competitive advantage. (Argote & Ingram 2000.)

2.2.4 Knowledge Work and the Knowledge Worker

Drucker (1969) identified the shift from labor-intensive economies to knowledge-economies. These knowledge-economies are characterized by knowledge as the driver of productivity and economic growth, leading to

information, technology and learning becoming important. Knowledge-economies call for workers who are highly skilled and educated and have the ability to learn, create and share knowledge. (Arthur et al. 2008.) Within these knowledge-economies there has been a raise of knowledge intensive companies whose core products are based on knowledge and innovation. Fundamentally the biggest asset of any knowledge intensive company should be their knowledge, as well as, social capital of the employees as individuals and as a team. Even though there is ambiguity within the definition of knowledge work there is a level of consensus that knowledge intense companies or industries concern work of intellectual nature that occupies mostly well-educated employees, termed knowledge workers. (Alvesson 2001.)

As the empirical part of this study focuses on development workers and their role as international knowledge workers, it is fundamental to first define what is understood by the role of knowledge workers. Knowledge workers have been studied in several studies however, most often as international assignees, expatriates within the corporate world. (Arthur et al. 2008; Bonache & Zárraga-Oberty 2008; Riusala & Suutari 2004; Riusala & Smale 2007.)

Due to the shift towards knowledge-economies and the changes in the global marketplace, companies have had to adapt new strategies of learning and knowledge transfer. Corporations must be able to insure that their core principles are integrated and standardized, as well as, accommodated throughout corporations across country and organizational borders, requiring sufficient knowledge flows and efficient knowledge management. (Riusala & Suutari 2004; Szulanski 2000.) Furthermore, if a corporation's strategic competitive abilities lay in its knowledge and its capacity to create and transfer knowledge, it must ensure that the workers are able to execute the strategy;

therefore, finding the right workers is a pivotal task. However, recruiting knowledgeable workers is not enough but the corporation should be able to place the right skills where they are needed, as well as, spread knowledge and practices and identify and develop talent. (Riusala & Suurari 2004.)

According to Davenport (2005), the essential being of knowledge workers is their ability and commitment to create, distribute and apply knowledge. However, Davenport and Prusak (1998) argue that all societies have knowledge markets that work within social, economic and political realities of these specific societies. Therefore, knowledge markets are always reliant on the surrounding environments. (1998: 27.) Similarly Alvesson (2001) emphasizes the relationship of knowledge and environment, the knowledgeability of an individual is dependent on the surroundings and what the society values as knowledge and important. Interestingly, knowledge intensive industries contain often a high level of ambiguity due to the complex nature of knowledge, therefore, organisations that are knowledge intensive have to create superior abilities to manage relationships and have good interaction with clients and the surrounding society. (Alvesson 2001.)

2.3 Knowledge Transfer

Even though the ability to produce and acquire knowledge has been identified as critical for corporations competing in the global knowledge economies the ability to identifying and utilizing the knowledge that exists within organisations has its own challenges (Szulanski 2000.) Knowledge exists and moves within organisations whether or not it is consciously managed (Davenport, Long & Beers 1998: 88). Knowledge is embedded into workers, different networks, tasks and routines, technology and products. (Argote & Ingram 2000). However, in general moving personnel has been identified as

being the most efficient way of transferring knowledge, especially tacit knowledge. (Argote & Ingram 2000; Bonache & Zarraga-Oberty 2008.) Companies seek for employees who are skilled and have specific knowledge and abilities. However, only effective transferring of knowledge and abilities will benefit the companies. Therefore, how knowledge is created, shared and transferred within a firm is essential in achieving a competitive advantage, rather than the amount of existing knowledge. (Argote & Ingram 2000, Davenport et al. 1998, Wang & Noe 2010.)

The terms knowledge sharing and transferring are often used interchangeably and are rarely defined clearly. Argote and Ingram (2000) define knowledge transfer as a process where one unit inside the organization is affected and influenced by the experience of another unit. Similarly Noe and Wang (2010) define transferring to be movement between units when as knowledge sharing is between individuals. Szulanski (2000) defines knowledge transfer as being a set of routines that are delivered to a new setting, however it is important to take into consideration that Szulanski's definition was developed within the context of intrafirm transfers.

In Szulanski's (1996, 2000) framework organisational units that perform better than others are seen to have superior knowledge that leads to superior performance and therefore applying this knowledge within other units inside the organisation is seen beneficial. Since this thesis covers transferring knowledge between two countries and different organisations Szulanski's (1996) intrafirm framework falls short. However, even though the Szulanski's work as such is not applicable to this study it can offer insight to knowledge transfer that can and will be adapted to transfers that may have similar characters as intrafirm transfers.

The study of Vaara et al. (2010) on international acquisitions gives more insight on knowledge transfer between different organisations and countries. Furthermore, the definition of knowledge transfer according to Vaara et al. (2010) is most beneficial and suitable for the study. According to Vaara et al. (2010) knowledge transfers cover the beneficial transfer of knowledge, capabilities or skills within or between organisations and units. This said, it is also important to emphasize the knowledge worker perspective, where individuals as knowledge workers are the fundamental actors in knowledge transfers. Knowledge exists in individual workers are therefore only committed individuals who are capable, as well as, willing to transfer and receive knowledge are a prerequisite for successful knowledge transfers. (Vaara et al. 2010; Szulanski 1996.) The importance of workers is also highlighted when we look at the impacts that transfers have. One popular way of evaluating knowledge transfers is looking at how much the performance of a unit or organisation has improved, after the acquired knowledge has been applied to a new situation. Yet, the improvements or possible failures are dependent on the workers who are applying the new knowledge, as well as, the senders of the new knowledge. (Argote & Ingram 2000.)

The rapid development of information communication technology (ICT) has created new platforms for creating, sharing and transferring data, information and knowledge but it is crucial to note that only meaningful human interaction can ensure the benefits of the new technologies. (Davenport and Prusak 1998, 3-5.) Whereas the use of ICT has enabled and lowered the cost of moving data and information around, humans are still considered to be essential for the flow of knowledge, especially tacit knowledge and expertise that resides within people (Bender & Fish 2000). Similarly Argote & Ingram (2000) underline that

ICT can be useful only with appropriate human interaction, and most affective when moved together with personnel.

2.3.1 Knowledge Stickiness

As has been identified, knowledge exists within organisations and individuals. However, knowledge is often hard to identify and transfer, especially knowledge that is tacit and cannot be codified. Intrafirm transfers, best practices within MNEs, have proven to be difficult to identify and transfer because organisations often do not know what they know, this resulting to knowledge being described as sticky. (Szulanski 2000.) Von Hippel (1994) originally came up with the term as he noticed that acquiring information to solve problems is costly and transferring and applying the new information and knowledge in a new location is challenging, therefore knowledge is sticky.

From the notion of knowledge as an objective or best practice it is yet important to understand that even though Szulanski discusses knowledge as a set of information or routines, he does also acknowledge the need to reconstruct knowledge into the new surroundings and therefore, knowledge or best practices are neither simple nor invariable. Szulanski underlines that knowledge transfer is movement linked to experiences not just knowledge distribution or dissemination (Szulanski 2000.)

Sender-receiver models are most commonly used to illustrate knowledge flows, concentrating on the receiving unit, characteristics of the relationship between sender and receiver, and characteristics of the knowledge transferred, as well as, where knowledge resides. Szulanski's studies (1996; 2000) represent the traditional sender-receiver model. Within the transfer of a model or a routine from one unit to another the process includes five fundamental elements:

source, channel, message, recipient and context. The qualities and functioning of the five elements are crucial for the successful transfers and they influence the difficulty of internal knowledge transfer. More specifically, Szulanski (1996) identified stickiness factors within four different elements. These elements can be used to predict knowledge stickiness; characters related to the knowledge transferred, characters related to the context in which the transfer takes place, characters related to the source or knowledge, and the characters of the recipient.

Argote & Ingram (2000) base their framework of knowledge transfer onto the fundamental idea of knowledge reservoirs and networks. Developing from the idea that knowledge is embedded into organisational tasks, routines and members. One of the underlying thoughts for knowledge being embedded in tasks and members derives from the work of Walsh and Ungson's (1991) theory on organisational memory. According to Walsh and Ungson (1991) the memory (the past) and knowledge of organisations reside in five repositories; individual members, culture, transformations, structures and ecology. However, always a certain amount of the past memories flow outside the organisation and exist there in external archives.

Similarly to organisational memory, organisational knowledge is embedded into different networks that consist from three elements; members, tools, and tasks and the subnetworks that derive from the combination of the main elements. Knowledge can be transferred by moving the networks and subnetworks around, however, the success is dependent on the compatibility of the sender and receiver networks. (Argote & Ingram 2000.)

As illustrated above, there are many factors that affect the successfulness of knowledge transfers. However, this study will build a framework based on the elements illustrated by Szulanski (1996; 2000.) Nevertheless, the core idea residing in most of the sender-receiver theories is working out the right tools of transfer and also with whom to transfer, as well as; what to transfer. (Jasimuddin & Zhang 2011.) Transferring people (expatriates or international assignees) is one of the most common ways of sharing and transferring knowledge throughout organisations. However, these transfers are often laborious, expensive and even sometimes unsuccessful. Building on the notion of knowledge stickiness it is clear that there are different factors that affect the success of transferring knowledge through people. (Bonache & Zárraga-Oberty 2008; Riusala & Suurari 2004.)

According to Bonache & Zárraga-Oberty (2008) personal abilities and motivation of the international assignee, as well as, the quality of the relationship between the individual employees are major factors affecting the success of the transfer. These factors are similar to the ones presented above; characters related to the knowledge transferred, the context in which the transfer takes place, characters of the source, and the characters of the recipient. (Szulanski 1996.) Table 1 illustrates the factors that are likely to influence the difficulty of knowledge and the characters related to them. The factors and specific characters of the factors will be described and explored in more detail in the next section.

Table 1. Stickiness Factors and Attributes. (Adapted from Szulanski 1996)

Factors	Characters (attributes)
Knowledge (message)	Casual ambiguity Unproven knowledge
Source (sender)	Lack of motivation Lack of creditability
Receiver	Lack of motivation Absorptive capacity Retentive capacity
Context	Barren organisational context Arduous relationship

2.3.2 Knowledge Stickiness Factors

The specific characteristics related to knowledge stickiness are casual ambiguity and unproven knowledge. *Casual ambiguity* describes the situation where exact models cannot be executed and there is no clear definition of what factors lead to success or failure. Often it is presented as the difference of what is done and what actually should be done. *Unproven knowledge* represents knowledge that does not have a reliable record of actually being efficient and proved to work, especially in the new setting. (Szulanski 1996.)

Characters that are associated with the source (sender) are lack of motivation and credibility. The stickiness characters of the source have most influence in the beginning of the transfer process. Similarity to unproven knowledge the source can *lack credibility*, be seen as untrustworthy and incapable. Additionally the source might *lack motivation* to share the knowledge, the sender might feel that transferring knowledge is not beneficial and the transfer can cause the source to loose their position or ownership of important knowledge. (Szulanski 1996.)

Similarly the receiver may *lack motivation* and this results into rejecting the new knowledge. The receiver's *absorptive capacity* describes the receiver's capability of absorbing the new knowledge; usually the ability is linked to previous knowledge and skills. Absorbing capability withholds the ability to recognize the value of the new knowledge and seek for sources of support for implementing a new practice. Following the absorbing capacity is the *retentive capacity* that presents the receivers capacity to retain the new knowledge in practice. If the receiver lacks retentive capacity knowledge will not be implemented into the organisation but will flow out. (Szulanski 1996.)

Barren organisation and arduous relationship describe characters related to the context of the transfer. *Barren organisational* context refers to organisations where new ideas are not accepted and innovations cannot grow. The *arduous relationship* describes the relationship between the source and recipient. Within knowledge transfers relationships develop and transform; an unsupportive structure, lack of communication and shared goals can all cause arduous relationships that has been identified to increase the stickiness of knowledge. (Szulanski 1996.)

2.3.3 Stages of Knowledge Transfer

Szulanski (2000) has identified four stages within intrafirm knowledge transfer represented in Figure 2. First, the Initiation stage is where lack of knowledge is observed and solutions will be searched for. After the first stage follows the implementation of the solution, Implementation stage. The third stage is called Ramp-up where the new information is in action and the organisation has to face unpredicted problems that keep the new system from reaching full capacity and meeting up to expectations. The last stage is identified as

Integration and it represents the true integration of the new knowledge to the existing organisational culture and processes. (Szulanski 2000.)

Figure 2 below represents the different stages and milestones that should be reached with successful transfer implementation. Each stage will be discussed in more detail later on.

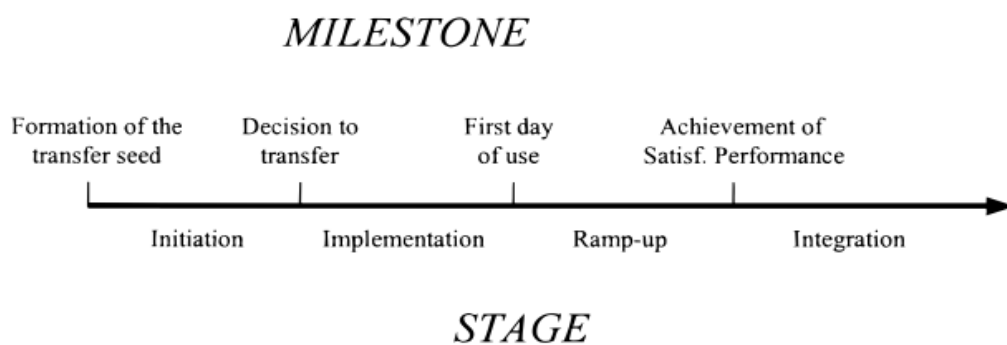


Figure 2. Stages of Knowledge Transfer. (Szulanski 2000)

The accurate execution of every stage is crucial for successful knowledge transfer. However, different stages are influenced by different challenges (Szulanski 2000). Similarly, knowledge transfer within international acquisitions requires awareness of the different stages. Different organisation and national cultures cause both positive and negative effects that can hinder transfers in terms of social conflict but also benefit learning and knowledge transfer. Understanding the actual transfer process and the different stages involved can however help ease conflict and unsuccessful transfers that raise form differences in cultures. (Vaara et al. 2010.)

1. Initiation Stickiness

The initiation stage is the first stage of knowledge transfer. Initiation of any transfer requires acknowledging the lack of knowledge, this acknowledgement can come either from the receiving or sending unit. Moreover, the initiation stage also requires the identification of the required existing knowledge. (Szulanski 2000.)

The stickiness within the initiation stage is usually related to problems of recognizing the transfer opportunities. The attributes of the sender have more influence in the initiation stage rather than later on in the transfer. Furthermore, factors related to the characteristics of knowledge are also in a crucial role in the initiation stage. Casual ambiguity related to best practices, as well as, the lack of proven abilities can hinder the interest of starting transfers. (Szulanski 2000.)

2. Implementation

The implementation begins when sufficient knowledge is found and the transfer decision is made. Ties between the sender and receiver are established and the new knowledge is crafted to meet the needs of the recipient. The difficulties within the implementation stage are mostly dependent on the relational factors, the quality of the relationship. There might be gaps in both technical know-how, language skills, as well as, language and communication skills. Motivational factors also play a big role in the implementation stage. (Szulanski 2000.)

3. Ramp up

The ramp-up stage begins when the recipient starts using the knowledge. Even though the new knowledge is expected to improve performance of the organisation, there are often difficulties within the ramp-up stage. These problems might occur in many different forms; difficulty to use knowledge in

the new environment, untrained workers, difficulties to adapt new norms or work behaviors. However, the earlier the problems are encountered the easier they are to fix. (Szulanski 2000.)

Additionally the problems occurring during ramp-up stage are often related to the organization's ability to use the new knowledge and are often related to the excising knowledge and skills. Casual ambiguity appears when the organisation is not aware of the existing relationships and structures and how the new knowledge is implemented in relation to the excising structures, actions and results. (Szulanski 2000.)

4. Integration

When results start to improve and the knowledge becomes institutionalized transfer has reached the final stage of integration (Szulanski 1996). When the new knowledge is routinized intraorganisational conflict can occur, the conflict can be set off by both internal or external factors; workers adapting new roles or changes in the surrounding environment. Recipient commitment is crucial in the last stage, if the recipient is committed to developing the organisation with new knowledge they will be motivated to encounter and manage challenges rather than go back to the original practices. (Szulanski 2000.)

2.5 Knowledge Management in The Development Sector

The corporate world identifies internal efficiency and competitive advantage as the most important outcomes of KM. In comparison the development sector has identified KM and learning as ways to achieve the Millennium Development Goals (MDGS) and abolish poverty in multiple developing countries, as well as, a tool to improve organisational efficiency. (Hovland 2003.) This section of the

thesis explores more the development and current challenges and trends in the development sector regarding KM.

One of the biggest weaknesses influencing KM in the development sector is the lack of a solid theoretical foundation (Ferguson & Huysman 2009; Krohwinkel-Karlsson 2007). In addition, most of the research and literature derives from the North, creating knowledge asymmetries (Ferguson et al. 2008). Another challenge indicated by Powell (2003) addresses the gap between research policy and research practice. The development sector has not been able to create knowledge that is usable in practice and that the recipients could understand. Similarly, current KM theories do not support the new participatory approach in the development sector but on the contrary represents the old top-to-bottom approach that promotes old elitist knowledge and power (Ferguson & all. 2010; Powell 2006.) Furthermore, organizational processes from a knowledge perspective are often overlooked and the focus is placed on tools, good practices, methodologies, cultural and enabling factors. This results in individual knowledge being bypassed and not efficiently capitalized for organisational use. (Ferguson et al. 2008.)

However, KM in the development work context is gaining more attention and the importance of knowledge and KM in the development sector has become evident in the past twenty years (Ferguson & Huysman 2009). Several researchers (McFarlane 2006; Mosse 2014; Powell 2003; Quaggiotto 2005) and organisations have turned towards KM to strengthen development interventions. For example both the WB (1996) and UN (2014) have emphasized the importance of knowledge for sustainable development of developing countries.

The attention has been accelerated by the identification of the development sector to be knowledge intensive (Ferguson et al. 2010). According to Powell (2006) there is need for development actions to produce representative, trustworthy and quantitative results. Furthermore, development is not only measured by economic means but development in the areas such as primary education, safe water supplies, energy and health are based on knowledge. Similarly, McFarlane (2006) argues that economic and social development of the poorest nations have to be based on knowledge and learning. Only people with the necessary local knowledge, skills and talents will be able to respond to the challenges in their environments and develop their countries (Powell 2006). Simultaneously, the recognition of the importance of knowledge in development practices transferred development organisations to become the accommodators of learning through knowledge networking (Ferguson & Huysman 2009).

The development sector being acknowledged as a knowledge-intensive has raised interest amongst academics that there is need for more specific and context-sensitive KM solutions for the development sector. (Ferguson et al. 2010; Mosse 2014.) The criticism towards the traditional KM models from the business sector is usually addressed towards the concept of knowledge and the traditional power relations. (Ferguson & Huysman 2009; Ferguson et al. 2010; McFarlane 2006; Powell 2006; Rossi 2004.) Fundamentally, the main question within KM in the development sector is centered on the concept of knowledge and how to access and use expertise from different stakeholders towards more successful development interventions (Ferguson 2016).

In 1996 The World Bank's announcement to provide knowledge assets to poor and developing countries, besides financial loans, was a clear statement that

reducing poverty and gaining development cannot be achieved with only monetary assistance but that knowledge plays a key role in the development industry (Cohen & Laporte 2004). This announcement is seen as the first force for development agencies to consider knowledge and learning as crucial tools towards more efficient development interventions. Furthermore, KM and learning were acknowledged as essential tools to harnessing knowledge from past experiences, knowledge that could be used to benefit future interventions (Krohinkel-Karlsson 2007). The World Bank's KM initiatives and programs illuminated mainly two major matters; firstly, knowledge works together with material goods and money: even though knowledge is an important asset in the development sector physical goods are still required in many cases. Secondly, efficient knowledge develops in local context. Essential expertise resides in workers, the routines and practices of local people. This local knowledge has frequently been overlooked in the development sector. (Cohen & Laporte 2004.)

Ferguson et al. (2010) argue that there are currently two main streams represented in the theories of KM in development work. Firstly, the latent approach that promotes participation through a network approach. Secondly, the active approach that is based on promoting knowledge as an object and that utilizes ICT. What makes the two approaches problematic is that the active approach can hinder the latent approaches within the organization. Additionally, the latent approach supports sharing and transferring knowledge that is based on the development elites rather than the communities and participants themselves. (Ferguson et al. 2010.)

According to Ferguson et al. (2008) the first phase (generation) of KM in development was ICT-centric where knowledge was seen as an objective commodity that could be distributed through technology and had a strong

focus on standards and benchmarks. The second generation of knowledge management in the development sector followed the corporate world acknowledging the importance of knowledge creation and lifecycle, as well as, the human and cultural dimensions. During the second generation organizational learning (OL) was largely acknowledged as an essential part of KM (McElroy 2000.) The fundamental idea behind OL was that for a company to be competitive it has to be able to apply knowledge and learn faster than competitors (Senge 1990). The third generation on of knowledge management in the development sector brought forward a shift to a practice-based perspective where knowledge is seen as a people-centric social construct within the communities. Table 2 below illustrates the summary of a literature review by Ferguson et al. (2008) portraying 4 generations of knowledge management within the development sector described by 5 different authors.

Table 2. Knowledge Management Generations in Development work (Ferguson et al. 2008)

Author(s)	Keywords			
	1 st generation	2 nd generation	3 rd generation	4 th generation
Huysman et. al (2007)	Epistemic objectivism; IT-determinism.	Social embeddedness; immersion in practice; communities of practice.		
Ferguson and Cummings (2007)	Knowledge as a commodity; ICTs, knowledge databases, portals, clearinghouses.	Knowledge sharing; case studies; 'best practices'.	People-centric, practice-based approach; knowledge processes embedded in organizational processes; inter-organizational communities of practice.	
Laszlo and Laszlo (2003)	Distribution of organizational	Knowledge creation to	The 'knowledge of evolution';	

	knowledge through technology ¹ ; focuses on standards and benchmarks.	satisfy organizational needs; organizational learning and value creation. ²	knowledge related to corporate citizenship and its impact on global development: participatory forms of engaging in meaning creation.	
Snowden (2002)	Structuring information for decision support: computerization of business processes.	Tacit-explicit knowledge conversion.	Context, narrative, stories, content management. Builds on complex-adaptive systems theory.	
Koenig (2005)	IT-centric: codification of intellectual capital; internet and intranets; best practices.	Introduction of human and cultural dimensions; the learning organization: tacit knowledge. intra-organizational communities of Practice.	Content management and taxonomies;	The importance of extra-organizational sources; situated contextual knowledge. Inter-organizational communities of practice.

2.5.1 Knowledge, Power, Politics and Northern Agencies

The notion of (local) knowledge plays a big role in articulating why traditional KM solutions from the corporate world struggle to produce sustainable solutions on their own. Krohwinkel-Karlsson (2007) argues that one reason why knowledge and learning from past experiences has been so poorly incorporated into development practices is the lack of true understanding of what knowledge and learning are. KM in the development sector requires more

detailed insight of what knowledge is; this will be discussed further on in this thesis. Furthermore, as development practitioners have argued that traditional knowledge transfers do not fully facilitate to needs of the development sector optional approaches have been created. Later in this chapter there will be an introduction of how the KM practices in the development field have developed from a sender-receiver position to a more learning centered approach where knowledge creation plays a central role.

Powell (2006) argues that the neat and simple hierarchical categorization and definition of information, data and knowledge, which is often used in the management domain is insufficient to meet the needs of the development sector. The concept of knowledge is interpretative; depending on country and culture. Thus, for one to be able to use knowledge successfully in development interventions the worker's have to be aware of the range of knowledge needed and be able to understand the reality that one is trying to change. (Powell 2006.) Similarly, Mchombu (2004) argues that traditional definitions of knowledge and information ignore the fact that knowledge and information are social constructs that are created within and for humans as individuals and communities. Knowledge is defined a process that has relations and gains meaning from its past and its surroundings. Therefore knowledge is always linked to history, power and politics. (14-15.)

Similarly, Mosse (2014) states that for any foreign knowledge to become relevant for international development it must be undressed from its context and history. Furthermore, the relationships within development work have to be better understood since knowledge itself is built upon relationships. In addition workers within the development sector must be able to understand

knowledge as a relational construct, both coming from their own background but also the relations within the societies that they work in. (Mosse 2014.)

However, it is important to note that these thoughts of knowledge are not very far from the ones that have been presented in the corporate world. Szulanski (2000) has similarly expressed that knowledge is context specific and linked to social processes in the certain context, Davenport and Prusak (1998) emphasize that knowledge is always dependent on society and environments and Argote & Ingram (2000) argue that knowledge is relational and exists within networks. It is clear that none of the literature presents knowledge as either simple or irrelevant to context. However, the development sector lacks replicability to a far higher extent than the corporate world. Best practices within the development sector have been found to be inoperative. Therefore, Szulanski's model of seeing knowledge as an objective or a set of knowledge that can be transferred from one unit to another is not sufficient for the development sector. (Ferguson et al. 2010.) However, it is clear that intrafirm knowledge transfers are often also problematic. Nevertheless, within the corporate world best practices are set to support corporate goals and increase competitiveness (Riusala & Suutari 2004) when as in the development sector interventions are overpowered by the donor agencies' knowledge that represent an outsider view suppressing local knowledge (Ferguson et al. 2010).

Aspects of knowledge and power are indisputably amongst the most discussed and studied issues related to KM in the development sector (Briggs 2005; Powell 2006). Specifically, researchers have looked at the relations between agency and hierarchy in development interventions (Mosse 2004). One of the most problematic views related to knowledge within the traditional development sector has been the North–South division where the rich Northern

countries distribute their knowledge for the poor Southern countries to develop (McFarlane 2006). Furthermore, Northern knowledge is often represented as the universal truth and local knowledge is rejected, this causing further marginalization (Powell 2006).

Reflecting the dominance of Northern knowledge, Ferguson et al (2008) argue that one of the biggest problems that Northern development organizations face is the lack of appropriate knowledge. Not just general knowledge but knowledge of the South and the intended beneficiaries. However, it is not enough that there is general knowledge of the realities but the knowledge and perceptions should arise from the local populations and local intellectuals. (Ferguson et al. 2008.) The lack of knowledge causes interventions to fail. Simultaneously development organizations learn too little, too slow and too late from past interventions. Even though there have been investments into rigorous and substantial feedback and follow-up systems, organisations have still not managed to integrate past experiences and learnt lessons into their work, and knowledge creation from past experiences is weak. (Krohinkel-Karlsson 2007.)

Ferguson et al. (2010) argue that only by acknowledging the political dimensions of knowledge and development, the KM discipline can truly contribute to successful development interventions. The authors underline the political nature of knowledge and how knowledge is always linked to power. The traditional knowledge transfer approach dismisses the context of knowledge being embedded into the society. Therefore, interventions that have treated knowledge as a universal truth or a set of truths have been unsuccessful to react to content specific problems. (Powell 2006.) As most transfers have been implemented with a North to South direction this has created a situation where

the West is imposing their development solutions on to developing countries (Escobar 1995). Even further problematic with the KT view from the West is that local discourses are being suppressed and marginalized voices are left unheard (Rossi 2004). In addition, Powell (2006) argues that development organisations lack understanding of the realities, historical and political backgrounds of the countries that they are trying to change.

The lack of appropriate approaches, methods, as well as, clear definitions of terms is illustrated by the use of multiple different methods of creating, sharing and transferring knowledge and the irregularity of the terms used within the development sector. Whereas the use of the term transfer is criticized for its objective views of knowledge (Ferguson et al. 2010), knowledge sharing is a more accepted term. Interestingly however, management studies define transferring to be movement between units when as knowledge sharing is between individuals (Noe and Wang 2010). Knowledge sharing within development practices can represent both individual aspects and unit (organisation, group) level movement of knowledge. (Staiger, Hewlitt, Horton, Russell and Toomey 2005; Oronje 2006.) Raising from the transition of traditional macro-economic approach to practice-based approaches in development work the development sector has also taken a more practice-based approach to knowledge that favors situated learning instead of traditional knowledge transfers (Ferguson et al. 2010).

As an option to the active approach of KM, where knowledge is transferred and treated as an object Ferguson et al. (2010) offer a post-rationalist view where knowledge transfers are replaced with situated learning. Figure 3 below summarizes the rationalist view and the alternative post-rationalist view to highlight the differences between two optional KM practices

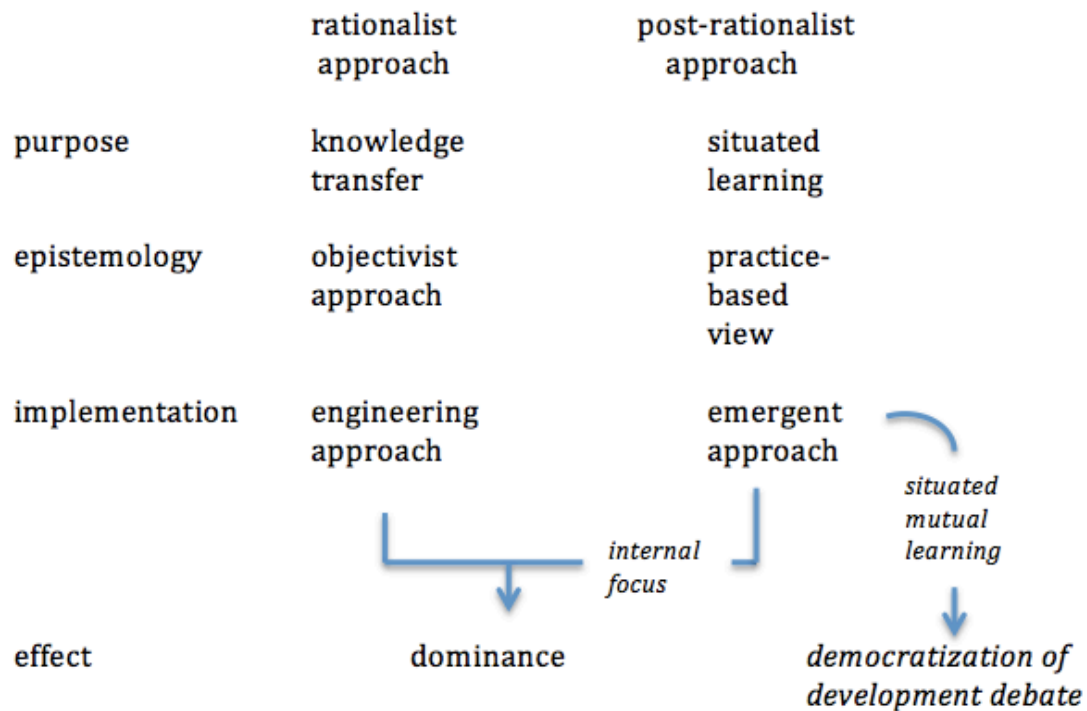


Figure 3. Approaches to KM in Development Work (Ferguson et al. 2010)

As it is out of the scope of this study the aim is not to define how development work should be done but what the role of workers is within the flows of knowledge. However, because traditional knowledge transfers have been identified as distrustful and insufficient in the development sector (Ferguson et al. 2010; Ferguson 2016; Powell 2006) however as knowledge in the development sector has been identified as a crucial necessity to developing local communities, knowledge transfers should not be abandoned. Therefore this thesis combines and develops the rationalist view of knowledge transfers together with the post-rationalist approach of situated learning. Where as, the stickiness factors (Szulanski 1996; 2000) are acknowledged together with simultaneously disseminating and leveraging knowledge flows and exchange in the development sector to produce more effective and beneficial

development interventions that do not derive from only the Northern discourses of development. (Ferguson et al. 2010; Ferguson & Huysman 2009; Rossi, 2004.) This viewpoint rises from three claims; firstly, the rare usability of best practices within the development sector. Secondly, local knowledge is often tacit and cannot be codified or made explicit, meaning that traditional knowledge management views that rise from ICT are not efficient and methods must be revised. And thirdly, the intended beneficiaries cannot be passive recipients for local adaptation to truly take place. (Ferguson & Huysman 2009.)

2.5.2 A Practice-based View of Knowledge and Situated Learning

The next part of this review will explore the development of the practice-based view of knowledge and how it affects KM in the development sector in terms of using situated learning to create situated mutual learning that can improve development interventions support traditional KT activities. As this thesis concentrates specifically on the role of development workers as knowledge workers there will be a discussion on the role of development workers in these learning situations.

Situated learning involves a practice-based view of knowledge where knowledge emerges from socially constructed practices and relationships between different stakeholders. This emergent approach facilitates situated mutual learning that should support recipient participation and promote better understanding of local perspectives and realities. (Ferguson et al. 2010; Ferguson 2016.) As studies have indicated organisations that focus on coordination and control of their knowledge management and have strong technology orientations have not been successful with their knowledge transfers and sharing (Ferguson & Huysman 2009).

Together with the development of new generations of KM in the development sector researchers created a concept of knowledge that is essentially different than the objectivist view of knowledge in the corporate world. The practice-based view of knowledge derives from the Foucauldian philosophy (1977). Michel Foucault's work on discourses and the philosophy of power/knowledge that questions the relationships between power and knowledge is the base of questioning the traditional development discourse. Foucault (1977) sees development as an inseparable continuum to existing practices and realities tied to power because people's realities are built within discourses that are constructed in the realities that people live in. Discourses present what is the acceptable way to do a certain thing and how one can talk about that thing. And as Rossi (2004) puts it *"Discourse works as a structure external to individual or collective actors, and to a large extent unacknowledged."* Fundamentally, Foucault challenged these verbal realities, maintaining that discourses are dependent on the time, culture and realities that people live in. Therefore, discourse of knowledge or development is additionally dependent on the realities and context that one lives in. (Rossi, 2004.)

The practice-based view of knowledge resides on the foundation of local and context specific knowledge, localization. This means that it challenges that discourses of "experts" that come to bring needed knowledge. Additionally, individual action within communities is essential for both creating knowledge and for knowledge to flow. When knowledge is created within the appropriate context it supports situated learning as the knowledge derives from the community and its needs and can therefore, be applied further according to the specific needs. (Ferguson et al. 2010.) One of the biggest challenges in KM in development work is how to take into consideration the multiple perspectives of heterogeneous interest groups (Ferguson 2016). The core of the practice-

based approach is the idea of several discourses existing simultaneously; this addresses the challenge of making several stakeholders heard. However, from a development worker's perspective it challenges the discourse of "experts" since the expertise often exists in a different discourse than the beneficiary. (Ferguson et al. 2010).

As knowledge transfers are often seen as one-way processes, learning offers an optional practice. Specifically situated learning is context specific and situated mutual learning even further emphasizes relationships between different parties and different views. By challenging existing discourse and relationships learning can happen and truly exist. (Ferguson & Huysman 2009). However, not all of the theories in the business sector are based on the sender receiver model. Where as in the traditional sender-receiver model knowledge is seen to flow rather effortlessly between the knowledge-rich sender and the knowledge-poor receiver (taking into consideration certain conditions) the social learning theory argues that the sender-receiver model overlooks the social nature of knowledge transfers and is therefore not complete. Similarly, to situated mutual learning, social learning views knowledge as being created through social interaction and engagement. (Noorderhaven & Harzing 2009.)

Social interaction is in the core of social learning where situations of communication between different units and members of MNEs are seen to be essential for knowledge creation. Social interaction gives enables members in the work society to share capabilities and already existing knowledge. (Noorderhaven & Harzing 2009.) Even though the social learning model also embarks from the corporate world and especially from the MNEs and intrafirm knowledge transfers it can offer desirable approaches to the development sector and the use of local knowledge to have a significant role in social interaction

leading to knowledge flows. Despite the usefulness of the social learning theory it does not deny or overrule the importance of the sender-receiver model but primarily both competes and complements and gives more insight into understanding knowledge flows (Noorderhaven & Harzing 2009).

2.6 Global Development Workers as Knowledge Workers

Both the corporate world and the development sector underline the importance of human action and individual workers in connection to successful knowledge flow and learning. (Davenport & Prusak 1998; Ferguson et al. 2010; Mosse 2014; Vaara et al. 2010.) As a worker in a knowledge intensive industry, development workers need to be able to learn, create and share knowledge efficiently (Arthur et al. 2008). However, as indicated earlier the challenges in the development sector for the worker's are several and differ especially because of the different types of organisations that function in the development sector (presented in Section 2.4). An exploration of the specific challenges that development workers face regarding KM and specifically when acting as facilitators of knowledge flows (situated mutual learning) will be presented in the following section.

Short term operational cycles, high staff turnover, low overheads and competitive behavior between agencies have been identified to be the biggest barriers to knowledge transfers and sharing amongst development workers in the development sector (Krohinkel-Karlsson 2007). Furthermore, as indicated earlier development workers have to be aware of the concept of knowledge and its interpretative nature. As development workers work outside their home countries they have to be specifically aware of the range of local knowledge needed and be able to understand the reality that one is trying to impact. (Powell 2006.) In addition, workers within the development sector must be able understand knowledge as a relational construct, balancing between their

own background and the relations within the societies that they work in. (Mosse 2014.) Knowledge workers must work as negotiators and challengers of excising knowledge discourses and be able to take into consideration the heterogeneous interest groups and create platforms for situated mutual learning that truly lead to successful interventions and interaction and commitment (Ferguson 2016).

The development sector challenges the thought that knowledge can be precisely managed, stocked or transferred. Even though major development organisations have taken a managerial approach to knowledge (UN, WB etc.) they have been criticized for management bias that suppresses knowledge flows. (Ferguson & Huysman 2009; Powell 2006;.) Because knowledge is a social construct it cannot be enforced and knowledge flows with the local stakeholders are dependent on the willingness of stakeholders, the local staff and development workers. Therefore, the role of knowledge workers for creating platforms and networks for sharing and transferring knowledge horizontally between different stakeholders and interest groups, as well as, from external sources is crucial. (Krohinkel-Karlsson 2007.)

Ferguson & Huysman (2009) argue that for any knowledge to lead to sustainable and successful development interventions knowledge sharing and transfers must be based on voluntary actions and willingness and should be embedded into individuals while carrying out their tasks. Simultaneously, willingness to share and transfer information requires the knowledge to be relevant and therefore, knowledge must be built in the context where it is used, not transferred from outside. This sets challenges for development workers to be able to identify the core knowledge that can and should be transferred and

how it can be newly constructed into the new surrounding. (Ferguson & Huysman 2009.)

2.6.1 Stickiness in The Development Sector

As presented previously, development organizations have not been successful in learning from past experiences; this has been noted as one of the reasons why there is poor knowledge available. Even though some fault has been laid on the complexity of issues, there is still consensus that learning organisations such as development agencies should create more efficient KM systems so that past experiences could benefit future interventions. As corporations enforce organisational learning to capitalize profits, non-profit organisations (most development agencies) should use organisational learning to boost learning capacities. (Krohinkel-Karlsson 2007.) As knowledge is seen to be a social construct (Davenport & Prusak 1998), organisational learning emerges from social interaction and working groups (Senge 1990).

Interestingly, best practices in the development sector are usually associated with power and big organisations such as the WB or UN, rather than with individual experiences. Workers have also been identified to learn and gain most knowledge internally. Furthermore even though communication and opinions of several stakeholders have been identified as crucial for successful knowledge flows and learning that lead to sustainable and successful interventions. These crucial external dialogs and networks are less explored. (Krohinkel-Karlsson 2007.)

However, total lack of knowledge from past experiences is not completely true. As a resolution for poor knowledge retention from past interventions several development organisations turned to ICT and created rigorous feedback

systems that evaluate performance and store explicit data on past experiences. However, development workers seldom seek for past experiences because of the abundance of information that has been codified into different databases and that is hard to process. Furthermore, the explicit nature of the knowledge cannot resolve the often, complex challenges faced in the development sector. (Krohwinkel-Karlsson 2007; Ferguson et al. 2010.) In addition, time and effort are identified as a barrier to using new knowledge. Similarly to the corporate sector, developing and adapting new ideas and knowledge into existing routines is both time consuming and laborious. However, interestingly learning from success stories has also been identified as being more desirable than often-laborious studies to understanding failed past interventions. (Krohwinkel-Karlsson 2007.)

2.7 Summary of Review

As the literature review indicates there are both similarities and differences between KM in the corporate sector and development sector and these differences have fundamental consequences to KM in the sectors. However, both disciplines clearly agree that KM is neither straightforward nor easy. Similarly, both disciplines admit to the whole notion of knowledge being complicated and challenging. Furthermore, the use of ICT is seen as a supportive element to KM rather than the final solution. At this point it also seems valid to argue that the development sector KM theories view the business sector KT theories to some extent in an over-simplistic way. Whereas the complexity of context and need for several knowledge discourses is valid in the development context, they do play a significant role also in the business context. As for the KM processes in the business sector are neither simple nor complete, the development sector could benefit from theories rising from the corporate world as complementary rather than competing and insufficient.

As the majority of knowledge management literature derives from the private-sector, majority of the current literature revolves around knowledge transfers with a top-down manner and the aim of providing competitive advantages to increase profits. The underlying difference roots back to the epistemological understandings of knowledge. When knowledge transfers in the corporate world can be seen as objective best-practice flows to improve firm performance, best practices in the development sector are often viewed as inefficient and even disruptive. However, it is evident that both sectors need knowledge transfers and knowledge flows. Furthermore, the current trends of using knowledge to improve development interventions call for better understanding of knowledge transfer processes in the development sector.

Szulanski's theory on sticky knowledge offers a good prerequisite for understanding the different stages and difficulties faced within intrafirm knowledge transfers. However, the intrafirm best-practice approach clearly makes the direct application of the theory to the development sector challenging because every development intervention is very context specific. However, it is good to mention that Szulanski's predictors of stickiness do take into consideration the different settings of where the knowledge is created and where it is sent to, as well as, the fact that knowledge has to often be reconstructed into the new setting. Unquestionably Szulanski's theory clearly identifies context as one of the stickiness factors and stresses the importance of being able to knowledge that is suitable for a specific context (Szulanski 1996). Therefore, it would be wrong to say that the theory would be totally unusable since even the business sector does recognize that all knowledge transfers are context specific.

Furthermore, as the development sector stresses the local context, the voices of beneficiaries and several different stakeholders, different knowledge discourses and situated mutual learning, it challenges the stickiness factors even further. Since the characters of knowledge transferred, the context in which the transfer takes place, characters of the source, and the characters of the recipient are even more complex in the development setting. One explanation for this can be the sentimental different of the nature of development organisations which are often non-profit organisations. Therefore, the development sector has to function in an organisational culture that is based upon the society rather than a profit making organisational culture. This is not to say that national culture within the society does not affect organisational culture in the corporate world, however corporate culture can be easier managed with different managerial tools rather than the culture of local societies that are in the core of development work. (Ferreira & Neto 2005.)

In addition, several business sector views can be adapted for development practices, i.e. Argote and Ingram's (2000) view of knowledge transfers being fundamentally experiences of one member in a network affecting the other member, underlines the contextual experiences of individual workers. Furthermore, both sectors emphasize the importance of the knowledge worker. Being able to create, use, transfer and share knowledge is the main task of the knowledge worker in both sectors. Whereas, knowledge work is often intangible, knowledge workers mostly work with relationships. Understanding the context where knowledge is both created and transferred is fundamental for both sectors. Both national and organisational cultures can affect the success of transfers and learning however, they are only a small part of successful knowledge flows. Additionally knowledge workers in the development sector

have to be aware of the different discourses of knowledge that rise from the different cultures and contain both judgment and power.

According to Ferreira & Neto (2005) the only true way of leveraging local knowledge is by giving a stronger role to local actors by promoting their skills and self-confidence. For development projects to be successful the solutions must be local, this can only be achieved by strengthening the capacities of the local people to recognize their own knowledge and past experiences but also by accommodating the possibilities to share and acquire knowledge from the world around them. As the literature review illustrates KM and knowledge sharing or knowledge transfers are problematic in the development sector for several different reasons. These reasons and some optional practices are summarized in Table 3 below.

Table 3. Summary of the Literature Review on the KM Challenges of Development Work.

Challenges	Impact of the challenges	Possible solutions
Theory does not respond to the practice-based approach in the development field	The theory from the corporate field often supports traditional knowledge transfers where knowledge is seen as an object.	Use of situated mutual learning rather than knowledge transfers.
Organisational learning and knowledge creation is slow in development organisations	Feedback systems gather mostly information that is coded and managed with ICT. This kind of information is abundant and it is time-consuming to find the appropriate information. Feedback systems and evaluations fall short of	External and horizontal knowledge flows should be encouraged through alternative methods such as emphasizing social relations and trust,

	<p>transforming knowledge from experiences into improved practices.</p> <p>ICT-based KM also takes away the human factor that is essential for knowledge to be created in a social construct, furthermore all knowledge cannot be codified and made explicit.</p> <p>Learning happens often internally and the external information is overlooked.</p>	<p>strengthening social capital and 'heuristic knowledge.</p> <p>More information should be shared of previous experiences from external networks.</p>
<p>The role and nature of knowledge have not been defined clear enough.</p> <p>What is 'relevant' knowledge for development agencies?</p>	<p>When the role of knowledge has not been clearly defined development agencies tend to stick to their own discourse of objective knowledge (objectivist bias). This knowledge is often not appropriate for the use of intended beneficiaries.</p>	<p>Use of several discourses of knowledge simultaneously.</p> <p>Participation of several different stakeholders of beneficiaries.</p> <p>Knowledge must be relevant to encourage and knowledge flows and increase willingness of knowledge sharing.</p>
<p>There is an exclusive emphasis on Northern knowledge.</p>	<p>Most of the research, as well as agencies in the development sector are based in the rich North, which creates knowledge asymmetries.</p> <p>When knowledge is not built</p>	<p>So-called "experts" should take into consideration local knowledge of several shareholders.</p>

	within a local context it marginalizes local beneficiaries.	There should be more South-South co-operation.
There is lack of balance between the use of bottom-up and top-down strategies.	<p>Official top to bottom management and “control” of knowledge can reduce willingness to share knowledge and the use of local relevant knowledge.</p> <p>Bottom-up strategies can be inefficient to changing policies and creating sustainable results.</p>	Create balance between the higher-level negotiation and policy-making processes and between local knowledge.

2.7.1 Theoretical Framework

The main goal of this thesis is not to identify or justify the right way of using knowledge in development work. However, based on the findings from the literature review this thesis builds a framework on the notion of situated mutual learning being the equal representative of knowledge transfers from the business sector. With this in mind Szulanski's predictors of stickiness will be examined within the context of situated mutual learning from the viewpoint of the Finnish development workers. As know-how is defined as the core asset of Finnish development work the worker's ability to reconstruct the knowledge in the new setting is fundamental and the experiences of the workers are pivotal. The stickiness of knowledge will be examined within the four categories of characters of knowledge, characters of the source, characters of the recipient and characters of the context. Figure 4 below describes the attempted movement of knowledge that would finally lead to successful interventions that ultimately contribute to sustainable economical growth, social, humanitarian wellbeing, increasing communities' capacities and knowhow. As the framework strives to illustrate there is a paradox between transferring

knowledge to strengthen the capabilities of developing nations and at the same time using local knowledge to ensure that the solutions are functional, sustainable and truly empowering.

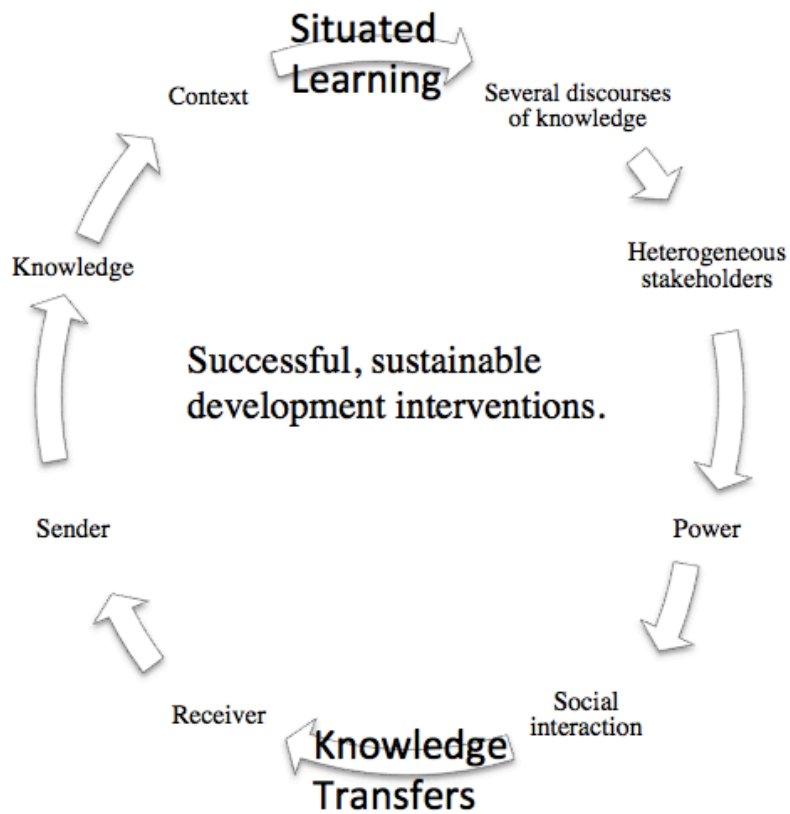


Figure 4. Possible Factors Influencing Successful Intervention.

3. RESEARCH METHODS

This chapter presents the methodological structure of the thesis. It describes the data collection and analysis methods and presents Namibia as the context for the study. To end chapter 3 the validity and reliability of the study are discussed.

3.1 Philosophical Assumptions & Research Approach

The philosophical assumptions that a researcher has underline the creditability and choices that the researcher makes regarding the study. The philosophical assumptions that underpin the decisions made in this study derive from an interpretive view, where reality is perceived subjectively and the entities of the thesis are studied according to their relationships and dependencies towards each other in the social setting and natural environment (Gray 2004:20).

The study is built upon the conceptual theoretical framework rising from literature, which forms the basis for further elaborating the topic empirically. However, even though the research has deductive reasoning rising from the framework, the framework is primarily a summary of the literature review and it is not used as such to test any theoretical predictions. Because the literature on KM in the development work context and especially knowledge transfer point of view is limited the research will contribute to conducting and developing a new theoretical framework from the explanations that rise from the empirical data. (Saunders et al. 2016:146-147.) As this study collects data from a phenomenon it is not directly tested to an old theory or framework but at the same time looks for patterns in existing theories the approach can be called abductive. In abductive research the researcher concentrates on theory development. In abduction one does not create new theories but systematically

explores and develops the existing ones while discovering new aspects and relationships. (Dubois and Gadde 2002.)

3.2. Research Design and Methodology

This study is conducted as an exploratory interview study. The exploratory nature of the research rises from both the research topic and objectives; exploring and examining the knowledge transfer process from the viewpoint of knowledge workers working in the development sector (Gray 2004:32). The research approaches knowledge transfers in development work from a new perspective and therefore seeks, for new insights, which highlights the exploratory nature of the study (Saunders & Lewis 2012:110).

The research questions were approached with qualitative methods, qualitative methods are suitable for this kind of studies that are explorative by nature and look for understanding and in-depth knowledge about a certain phenomena. Furthermore, qualitative methods are suitable in situations where the topic is broad and complex, and has scarce previous studies and it has to be studied in its own context. In qualitative methods the researcher has to make sense of the surrounding constructive meanings that are expressed by the people that live in that reality. (Saunders et al. 2016:168.) Knowledge in the development sector is a political term that is closely intertwined with the concept of power. In addition, politics and power are both context related terms and therefore knowledge transfer in the development sector can only be studied within the development context, preferably in the specific context that the operations are performed in (Ferguson et al. 2010.) As Namibia was chosen to be the country of context for the study, the next part of the thesis presents a short introduction of Namibia to help the reader get familiar with the specific context.

3.2.1 Namibia, Country of Context

As the World Bank has indicated, the majority of poor people live in the three regions of the world, East Asia and the Pacific, South Asia, and Sub-Saharan Africa (World Bank Group 2016). This thesis will concentrate on a specific country, Namibia located in Sub-Saharan Africa.

Namibia is a middle-high income country with a population of 2.3 million people occupying an area 825,418 square kilometers. The World Bank reports that the country has enjoyed steady economic growth since independence from South Africa in 1990 resulting from sound economic management, good governance, basic civic freedoms, and respect for human rights. Namibia has a Gross Domestic Product (GDP) per capita of US\$5, 651. (World Bank 2015.)

Since Independence in 1990, the Namibian Government has established development objectives & targets for the country through 5-year term plans - National Development Plans (National Development Plans 2015). Namibia's Vision 2030 program provides the long- term development framework to becoming a prosperous industrialized nation, developed by its people leaving in harmony and enjoying political stability (National Development Plans 2015). Namibia is one of Africa's wealthiest countries measured in terms of per capita income 5680\$; however, the country is number one in the world when it comes to unequal distribution of income. Furthermore, 4% of the population still lives in extreme poverty (World Bank 2015).

Finland and Namibia share over 140 years of history dating back to the Finnish missionary work. In 1990 Finland was among the first countries to establish diplomatic relations with Namibia. Currently Finland participates in

development projects located in Namibia through several different channels varying from international organizations to development banks, civil society organizations and NGOs (Embassy of Finland 2016). Know-how (for example in the fields of sustainable use of natural resources and education) have been identified as one of Finland's development cooperation assets and therefore, the workers in the field and their abilities to transfer knowledge play a prominent role in the study of knowledge transfer (Ministry for Foreign Affairs 2016). In this study the interviewees all worked for different organisations, including Finnish funded bilateral programs, institutional cooperation and private sector cooperation. The work included, to mention some; research, consulting, supporting local processes and enhancing trade relationships. It is also good to mention that all of the workers did not identify themselves as solely development workers, but development work was only a part of their job. In addition, some of the projects that were discussed were all in different stages, including one project that had already been completed.

3.3 Data Collection

The participants of the interviews were workers in different areas of development work. The projects and workers are located in Namibia and Finland. The interviews were conducted either as face-to-face interviews or using Skype, recorded and transcribed. During the interviews the interviewees were encouraged to elaborate on topics that were relevant to them. Interviews were chosen as the appropriate data collection method since they can provide in-depth contextual information that is essential for an explorative study.

As the data was collected using a pre-formulated, semi-structured interview guide it ensured all the participants were asked the same key questions. Even though the interview structure was the same for each participant, sometimes

the order of the questions could be different if the discussions naturally lead to a certain topic. The interviewer also emphasized the fact that the interviewees were allowed to pass any questions that felt irrelevant to them or discuss topics that they felt were not important. Similarly the interviewer tried to avoid presenting leading and proposing questions to minimize interviewer bias.

The interviewees were chosen through a network of development workers, as well as, common friends and previous connections. The workers were chosen from very different positions and with different years of experience to make sure that the different aspects of development work were covered. All the participants seemed happy to participate and agreed immediately to take part. To make sure that the participants were as comfortable as possible in the interviews all the interviewees received an explanation beforehand so that they were able to familiarize themselves with the topic and their role before the interview. To ensure that all the workers have full anonymity it is crucial that their jobs and tasks were not exposed in the final data presentation. Two of the interviewees were male and two were female and all of the interviews were conducted in English because it was the working language of the workers. Nevertheless, all the interviewees were given the option to choose whether they would like to use Finnish, which was their native language.

Since the purpose of this study was to gather in-depth data from development workers four interviews were conducted this was due to the deadline created by the researcher and the rather limited amount of Finns working in Namibia in the development sector. Having said that, the population for the thesis was 10 people from 10 different organisations and five people were sampled out of this ten. Originally, five interviews were organized but due to work-related commitments one was cancelled last minute by one interviewee. Therefore,

four in-depth interviews were seen as sufficient to provide enough data for the exploratory nature of the research. The small amount of interviews also insured that more time and detail was used to study each interview. (Saunders et al. 2016: 274). As Namibia is a relatively small country 2.3 million people (World Bank 2015) the amount of Finnish development workers is not very high. In addition the Finnish community is rather small and it was challenging to find interviewees that worked for different kinds of projects. Although 4 is a rather low number of interviews, it should be noted that it is a fair representation of the range of work that Finns are involved in and present a notable share of Finnish development workers from an already small amount of workers. Before the official interviews a practice interview was held to ensure that the questions were adequate. The interviews followed the categories presented below in Table 4. The structure also worked as first level framework (categories) while doing coding of the data.

As the interviews started with the introduction of KM, this could have caused a bias towards the topic. However, by exploring the interviewees previous knowledge on KM the interviewer got an understanding of what the workers conceived as knowledge and what they thought that KM is in general. As there were no correct answers to the question, all of the workers could explain what they thought the concept could mean and how it could be relevant in their work and created the grounds for further elaborating the topic. Similarly, the other topics in the interview structure, especially in the last part (Table 4) were not used as such in the interview but as topics that the interviewees were able to elaborate on if they were relevant or had meaning to the interviewee.

Table 4. Interview Structure

Interview structure
Warm up questions: Personal work experience, relation and previous knowledge of KM.
Role of knowledge: What role does knowledge play in work? What kind of knowledge is important?
Transfer/Sharing: What are the knowledge related activities? How are they implemented and how does one describe them? What is success?
Barriers Sender, receiver, message and context.
The Finnish (Northern) Perspective Power, funds and local knowledge.

3.3.1 Qualitative Semi-Structured Interviews

Since the research is exploratory and the topic is both sensitive and complex, the semi-structured interviews provided a discussion format for the interviews so that the researcher was able to gain deep understanding and insight of the topic. The semi-structured interviews also allow the conversation to elaborate on topics that are interesting and relevant to both the interviewer and participant. (Saunders & Lewis 2012:151.) Semi-structured interviews have a set interview structure with themes but they allow the interviewer to change the order of the questions, as well as, adapt and create new questions needed during the research situation (Saunders et al. 2016: 601).

3.4 Data Analysis

The style of research defines the way the data is analyzed; as the study uses an abductive approach the data was analyzed in two lines of action. However, both approaches require coding the data. Coding the data starts from first carefully familiarizing yourself with the data, this requires reading the

transcribed interviews as well as the notes several times. After familiarization the data was coded according to the codes and themes that rose from Szulanski's (1996) original theory on knowledge transfer and codes that were identified in the situated learning approach. Secondly, the data was examined for common themes and ideas that rose from the data and formed a shared understanding on the topic. (Farquhar 2012:150-151.) This method insured the dialogue between the existing framework and emerging topics and themes.

Qualitative data can be analyzed during and immediately after collecting the data (Farquhar 2012:142). The data was analyzed using content analysis, which concentrates on the content and limits the analysis from interpreting every detail present in the interview such as non-verbal reactions (pauses, silences) facial expressions and body movement. However, essential for content analysis is to analyze, interpret and conclude the data rather than only describe the data. (Hirsijärvi, Remes & Salavaara 2007: 219-222.)

As mentioned, content analysis requires deep understanding of the data collected and therefore the analysis was made both systematically and thoroughly. All the interviews were recorded and transcribed within the next 24 hours of the interviews; simultaneously notes were taken during and after the interview. After transcribing the interviews the interviews were printed out and each interview was combined with the notes made during the interviews. After careful familiarization to the data, in content analyses the data is coded according to predetermined categories that, in this case, have risen from Szulanski's theory and the literature review. The codes were created and data was coded with specific colors representing certain codes. After doing the first set of coding the categories were divided into subcategories and the data was further categorized and analyzed before the results were presented in writing

with supportive quotes from the data. A part of content analysis is also taking into consideration the themes that rise from the data and are not part of the initial framework. However, in this study the alternative themes that enforce the explorative nature of the study were approached with thematic analysis.

Thematic analyses is used to identify, analyze, and report themes or patterns found in data, it is a flexible method nevertheless, systematic. Thematic analyses can be used with to analyze data without a preliminary framework. In this thesis thematic analyses is used to produce a rich description of the whole data based on emerging themes furthermore the goal is to provide a overall description of a topic that has little previous research. (Clarke & Braun 2013.) Clarke & Braun (2013) argue that a good thematic analysis is transparent and clearly presents the theoretical position of the data and analysis. Furthermore, they emphasize the researchers active role and underline that analyzing data includes several conscious and unconscious decisions, themes do not just emerge from the data but the researcher looks for them actively. In the case of this study thematic analysis is used to reflect the reality that is presented in the data by the interviewees.

The thematic analysis proceeded from first carefully familiarizing oneself with the data. After the data was familiar, codes from important issues and topics where detected by marking them with a separate color from the earlier coded topic (somehow the topics however did overlap each other) and examined with grated detail. After codes were defined that represent the whole data, the codes where placed under specific themes creating a thematic map. All relevant data was gathered under the appropriate theme and each theme was given a name so that the themes form a story that represents the data evenly. Similarly to the content analyses, the final process was creating a report that presents the data and is supported by evidence from the data.

3.5 Validity and Reliability

Validity and reliability are central terms when measuring the quality of quantitative research, however their role in qualitative research is more complicated and less understood. There is ongoing discussion on if and how the quality of qualitative research should be evaluated and if the terms validity and reliability should be even used when discussing qualitative research. As qualitative research is intended to measure and represent reality and can include interpretive assumptions, the traditional focus on replicability and generalizability does not necessarily apply. Nevertheless, the whole process from the literature review, data collection to data analysis should be as transparent as possible to secure the quality of the research. (Saunders et al. 2016:202.) However, what is more important than the terms used is to be aware of one's position and choices towards the decisions we make while choosing a topic, choosing certain methods, as well as, analyzing and presenting the data. At its best qualitative data proceeds from rich data of a relevant and interesting phenomenon into solid frameworks and finally convincing theories. (Doz 2011.)

3.5.1 Validity

Validity refers to the creditability of the study and how well the research was conducted. Furthermore, to what has the researcher been able to access the meanings and knowledge that the data has presented. The different forms of validity are measurement validity, internal validity and external validity. Measurement validity in this case refers to how well the interviews and questions measured what was intended to measure. (Saunders et al. 2016:450.) Discussing the topic with people from the development domain insured internal validity; the discussions made sure that the topic is relevant. Furthermore a practice interview was held to make sure that the questions were addressing the right

topics. External validity refers to the earlier mentioned replicability, whether if the study was repeated would other researcher get the same results. However, as the study was of explorative nature and conducted as a interview study containing a small amount of interviews the findings are not meant to be generalized. However, as the results are similar to findings made in literature, this offers the possibility of comparison to similar cases. (Saunders et al. 2016:204-205.)

3.5.2 Reliability

Reliability refers to the consistency of the research findings, the replication and the consistency. Furthermore to ensure reliability it requires the researcher to make diligent efforts and commitment to consistency throughout interviewing, transcribing and analyzing the findings. And to being as transparent, and report all the stages of the research as detailed as possible, to ensure that the research can be replicable. However, replicability can be questioned because the nature of qualitative case is to represent certain people in a certain setting that is socially constructed. (Saunders et al. 2016:202.)

Possible threats to reliability in qualitative research are participant error, participant bias, researcher error and researcher bias (Saunders et al. 2016:202). To avoid participant error, the participants were sent a letter to inform them of the procedures and the topic beforehand so that they were able to familiarize with the topic and be as comfortable and prepared as possible. Furthermore the participants were allowed to choose their preferred method of communication as well as time that suited them best. Full anonymity was granted so that the participants were able to talk as openly as possible without fear of recognition; this was done to decrease the possibility of participant bias. Researcher error is any factor that can impact the collection of the data, researcher bias on the other

hand errors that are done during data analysis. To avoid researcher error, the researcher has to be aware of ones philosophical assumptions and be prepared for the interview. The interviews also followed the semi-structured plan to ensure that all interviewees were asked the same questions. (Saunders et al. 2016:203.) To avoid researcher bias, the interviewer asked the participants to clarify any topics that could be misunderstood and the participants were able to receive the transcribed versions of the interview afterwards to diminish possible errors. Secondly the procedure required being consistent with transcribing the data and doing the transcribing promptly after the interviews were done to avoid researcher bias. Furthermore, the codification process required a systematic approach where all opinions and messages were analyzed even if they were conflicting to the literature or other parts of the data.

4. FINDINGS

This part of the thesis presents the findings of the research questions, specifically: How does knowledge stickiness affect knowledge transfer from the global development worker's perspective? What additional insights can situated learning offer concerning the challenges of knowledge creation in development work settings?

To be able to answer the research questions comprehensively it was necessary to first explore the position of knowledge management in the development sector from the viewpoint of the Finnish workers in the Namibian context. Therefore, the findings first present an overall view of knowledge, knowledge management and knowledge workers in the development sector. Szulanski's framework of knowledge stickiness and the traditional sender-receiver model were used as an initial framework when addressing the interviewees with the questions related to knowledge transfers barriers RQ1 (How does knowledge stickiness affect knowledge transfer from the global development worker's perspective?). The findings related to RQ1 will be presented after the overall view of knowledge. Following the discussion around the first question comes alternative themes found in the data and they are explored to give insight to RQ2 (What additional insights can situated learning offer concerning the challenges of knowledge creation in development work settings?).

It is important to note that the study was composed in Namibia, therefore the results are context specific and some specific features represented in the findings may only be applicable in the Namibia-Finland context. Furthermore, as noted earlier in the study Finnish development work has been under transformation during the past years and a lot of the traditional development

funds have been directed to the private sector. Due to that, even though development work has previously been understood to cover mostly non-profit functions, the new policies are enabling private sector actors to become major players in the development scene and therefore, they are also present in the data collected.

4.1 The Role of Knowledge in Development Work

As the role of knowledge and KM has been highlighted in the development sector (Ferguson, Huysman, & Soekijad 2010) it was important to investigate what the understanding and attitudes of the development workers are towards knowledge before getting into more detail on knowledge transfers. Based on the challenges (see Table 2) and criticism (for example Ferguson et al. 2010; Krohwinkel-Karlsson 2007; Powell 2006; Rossi 2004) towards current KM methods and knowledge transfer in the development sector, the data was examined to gain understanding of the context and realities that exist in the development sphere.

The starting point for the study was that the development sector workers are portrayed as knowledge workers, who are knowledgeable individuals that possess certain knowledge that help them succeed in their daily tasks, more specifically, they must be able to learn, create and share knowledge efficiently (Arthur et al. 2008). Therefore, the interviewees were asked to describe their previous knowledge on KM and how KM is relevant to their current jobs. All four (n=4) interviewees said that they are familiar with the term of KM but none of them had any formal education or theoretical knowledge of the topic as such. Neither did their jobs include any separate programme, tools or methods that would have been named KM or personnel working solely on KM. However, all

the workers felt that knowledge management was a part of their job in someway.

All four interviewees work in very different fields and different positions. However, what was in common for all the workers was the fact that they all work with several different stakeholders, partners, institutions and therefore knowledge flows are abundant and to some extent challenging to identify and manage. When discussing different types of knowledge both tacit and explicit knowledge was included. Tacit knowledge was referred to, as knowledge that resides in people, is engaging, capacitating and requires commitment and finally leads to action. Furthermore, this kind of knowledge needs human presence.

“And the knowledge is really with the people who have a specific understanding of the issues and they need to be there, if we would do it through emails or sharing studies then there would be no way of succeeding pushing the agenda forward.”
W1

Similarly:

“I don’t believe that anything can happen if you are just sending emails or making newsletters, it has to be from human to human actions” W3

Also terms information, knowhow and expertise were used interchangeable in some instances. However, the focus was on tacit knowledge, especially tacit knowledge that Finns try to transfer to Namibia. All the interviewees underlined the importance of the human factor when discussing both, knowledge flows, as well as, knowledge having to lead to action. Therefore, the starting point was that the work in Namibia as Finns is crucial and there is an element of tacit knowledge that could not be achieved without human interaction.

The knowledge related activities included both transferring Finnish knowledge and distributing it to several locations but at the same time acquiring local knowledge to Finland and applying knowledge to local circumstances. To ensure that knowledge (solutions, technology) was suitable for the Namibian conditions a lot of research and mapping was required and it is included in the knowledge related activities. Relationships and social interaction were seen as a key to successful knowledge flows within the complex network. Below Table 5 gives examples of the different kinds of knowledge related activities that the workers described during the interviews.

Table 5. Examples of Knowledge related activities.

Action	Explanation
Identifying skills gaps and creating training programs & skills building.	Generic training programs were created with the help of local consultant and experts from outside the programme. Staff within the project was trained on-site, mostly through a learning-by-doing approach. The training material was gathered into manuals that were left for future use.
Developing people	Giving support and training for people who needed capacities to better manage their functions.
Audit control	
Supporting and facilitating	Finding local people who had needed skills to share the skills and knowledge with people that lacked. Providing information to several stakeholders and facilitating meetings and discussions, as well as providing coffee.
Presentations	Worker giving several presentations around Southern Africa on a certain topic.
Bootcamps, mentoring, conferences and seminars	Working as an advisor with local institutions and local projects.

Applying things together	When the local counterparts were well trained and had the same basic knowledge and skills.
Support mechanisms (utilizing networks)	Supporting knowledge sharing and exchange. Linking different institutions and shareholders to each other. Different kind of matchmaking and contacting people personally to utilize expertise and knowhow.
Knowledge sharing	Knowledge sharing amongst colleagues using monthly conference calls.
Delegation visits and one-to-one meetings	Both Namibians and Finns visiting each other to familiarize themselves with possibilities, opportunities but also to understand each other better.
Local operational mapping	Studying local conditions to make sure that the solutions fit the local conditions and the local environment in several aspects e.g. legal regulations but also preferences of the local people.
Technology transfers	Transfers can be done when local conditions are known, technology must be flexible and scalable.

4.2 Sticky Knowledge

After mapping the general position that knowledge and KM play in development work, the data was analyzed using Szulanski's (1996; 2000) theory on knowledge stickiness and the findings related to the four factors are discussed here.

4.2.1 Knowledge

The actual message (unproven knowledge) was not seen as a barrier to knowledge transfers from the workers' viewpoint, especially since there was a common understanding that Finnish knowledge is seen as reliable. The barrier that was clearly identified was casual ambiguity.

"I think Namibia would be willing to get as much support from Finland as possible, again they ask the same questing of maybe the expectation being that Finland can finance everything and provide solutions for Namibia for free" W4

Namibians are happy to get knowledge but there is a lack of understanding of what kind of knowledge is available and what kind of knowledge is needed. Even further illustrated in the quote that was presented earlier:

"And there are too many parties within that country with different opinions and no do processes, you don't go through the correct or extensive process to define what are the needs." W1

"Then you have national development plans of 500 pages that have a million priorities and there is no budget to implement that in the first place. So its like a wish list of all kinds of things, many of them coming in from you know this discourse that the Northern donors use and it might not make that much sense in the first place for the recipient countries." W1

4.2.2 Source

Based on the long history that Finland and Namibia share and many previous partnerships none of the interviewees identified lack of creditability as a barrier to knowledge transfers.

"Namibians really trust that Finland can offer really high quality technology, good solutions and they have seen how Finland has bough in so many good things in the past, so they kind of trust that Finns do a good job and Finns are reliable" W4

However, what was interesting was that one interviewee said that in Namibia (Southern Africa) people, the actual relationship is more important than the knowledgeability of the person.

"I would say my experience from Africa is that it's people to people. In our circumstances (Finland) we are talking about more on the substance kind of what is decisive, whether you are competent with your knowledge, the subject you are

talking about that is decisive. Of course personal relations matter but in Africa that is the starting point, you have to first build the trust relationship with people and I guess that is quite important when you think about the KM issues in general” W2

Two of the workers identified the senders’ lack of motivation to be a possible barrier to knowledge flows. Lack of knowledge was seen as a trigger to lack of motivation that can act as a barrier to engaging to knowledge transfer. In general, the lack of knowledge was related to negative images of the continent of Africa being poor and underdeveloped.

“Finnish companies don’t know so we must do much more marketing in Finland that Namibia is actually a very good environment and platform for anybody, any company who would be interested in the African markets”W4

4.2.3 Receiver

As presented earlier the receivers of the knowledge (Namibian counterparts) were several; different stakeholders varying from institutions to local private companies, colleagues and local communities. Therefore, it was clear that the data presented several different views on how the receiver affected the knowledge transfers. Depending on the specific shareholder who was in question, lack of motivation was seen as a major problem for the knowledge to be implemented:

“That’s what I was saying they as the recipient were not willing to get the information or they might have had competing interests I mean I don’t want to accuse anybody but there are invested interests” W1

However in the same project:

“As I said ministry (1) not interested, (2) was quite interested, (3) technical staff very interested the PS not interested at all”W1

Or as another worker described:

“Policy makers where not that much involved and they were not that much, kind of I wouldn’t say interested but they were not that keen on issues we were trying to kind of transfer to them. But our key partners the (certain) intermediaries and companies and individuals they were highly motivated” W2

All of the interviewees also mentioned that meeting people in high political positions (e.g. visiting ministries) was important. In some cases the lack of support from political instances would slow or even prevent some of the projects and programs from proceeding.

The absorptive capacity of the recipient was seen as a barrier to some extent, it was divided into two different behavioral aspects rising from corporate and national culture and capacities related to education and previous knowledge. Three out of four interviewees identified the receivers absorptive capacity as a possible barrier to knowledge flows.

“Yeah I think that it is quite a sensitive issues when you think of what might be an assumption from the Finnish stakeholders; that they just bring in their working culture into maybe a factory that they want to establish. But they really need to take into consideration that things work a bit differently here” W4

Therefore, even if the technical solutions offered from Finland might be suitable, corporate or national culture can act as a barrier.

“I would consider myself quite experienced player who has been in this (certain) world for quite a long time, if not a dinosaur something like that. Then if I am thinking of the guys who are on the other side, I would say that maybe it has more once again to do with the context, those guys were quite new and they didn’t know all the concepts they didn’t know all the kind of what we were talking about in a sense to make your message clear.” W2

Here the lack is related to the recipients education and understanding of a certain domain. Therefore, the domain was seen as a specific context but simultaneously the individuals in that domain were seen as recipients who did not have the needed levels of knowledge to be able to receive the message.

"I think it was of course an issue about how do we talk the same language. We didn't of course want to sound like what's the English word, so to speak betterwissers and like men who came to say that this is how it is and we have been there and done that this and it is how you should do that. So we tried to be very interactive and understanding" W2

However similar education and knowledge levels were seen to enable the use of transferred knowledge and best practices.

"But I guess on the other hand at least when we were working with our partners in the kind of the context where people were highly trained, well educated with master's, doctor's and bachelor's degrees, in that sense and in a new kind of information flow people are quite well informed about new trends and things. So in that sense messaging and the message in that sense could be the very same if I would be in Finland or example in Namibia." W2

One out of the four interviewees identified retentive capacity as a possible barrier. If knowledge cannot be used actively it will not become a part of organizational practice.

"--you have the capacity but you are not able to use it, thus you will forget it and I don't know. Because you are not using it you don't evolve it further, you don't use the processes related to the knowledge used and you would need to." W1

4.2.4 Context

Context seemed to be the most common stickiness factor, all the interviewees (n=4) identified that it can affect the transfers negatively and that one most take into consideration the local context.

"You adapt it to the local conditions, make sure that it works its understood and it makes sense in those conditions. So basically, I mean the principles are there they can be shared and you know it if you go through a financial management course. But then you need to pillow the needy-greedies that are just for that specific environment where ever you might happen to be working in." W1

Understanding the context before hand is a challenge and therefore the knowledge must always be adapted into the knew setting, however as Szulanski (1996; 2000) presented as knowledge is not easily removed from its original context neither is it easy to apply into the new setting.

"To some extent I made a mistake that I of course thought that I'm not landing to a different planet but to some extent I realized in the first six months or in a year that I have landed to a kind of a different planet. Cooperation culture, openness and things like that we have to adjust and accommodate our mechanisms and tools and what ever exercises that we are doing into the local circumstances so in that sense it was a bit of a surprise" W2

The barrier of the barren context was also evident in a case where workers were not allowed to proceed with tasks that they were supposed to use the knowledge in.

"In my opinion, if you transfer knowledge you also need to be able to use it immediately. And in this case if you transfer knowledge to a (certain unit) and they don't get a function, you know they have a fully capacitated planner and he has nothing to plan for, in a few years he is going to leave, he is going to move somewhere else. –It really prohibits the knowledge transfer or the use of the knowledge that might have be transferred as there is no need for it." W1

"So that is what I mean with the context that it's a situation that you have the capacity but you are not able to use it, thus you will forget it. And because you are not using it you don't evolve it further you don't use the processes related to the knowledge used and you would need to." W1

On the other hand the context was barren because of the cultural setting or because of lack of support within the context.

"We couldn't engage private sector in the way we wanted to etcetera so basically the environment the circumstances and the culture in general (certain) culture was not that ready." W2

"But if I'm thinking, we probably didn't get really the boost that we were thinking we would. That everybody would understand that this is the role of (a certain domain) and they would double the resources etc. that has not been happening" W2

Therefore, even if there are universal principles and best practices if the context is barren and one is not able to accommodate the knowledge to the context it will not become sustainable. As for the arduous relationship between the sender and receiver lack of understanding of the local context and furthermore expectations and goals had not necessarily been the same with the sender and receiver and therefore the transfer did was not seen as 100% successful.

"The Namibian (certain) ecosystem and the whole playground where we were playing, our position and our thinking were probably only 70 or 60% right in a sense that, so to speak the (certain) culture the (certain) climate the readiness, and resources where not to say all of the elements were lacking but they were probably not that well developed" W2

One worker also clearly stated that based on the past relationships it has caused certain expectations that can affect the sender-receiver relations in a negative way, there might be clear misunderstanding on what the other partner is offering and what the other partner is hoping to receive.

"Well I mean I already referred to the challenges that we have faced before like the expectations being that Finland still provides things the same why that they used to in the past" W4

"If Finnish companies want to sell for example technology they should always also bring some training component so that it is like not a once off sales event or something. They should also involve some kind of longer-term commitment, which we can clearly see that the Namibian partners are really waiting to receive from Finland" W4

Similarly, understanding the other counterpart both their expectations and cultural background was seen as an important factor for successful flows. The other part, in this case often Namibia, would have expectations of training and possibly financing, when the Finns thought that they could just provide Namibia with a single technical solution. Due to these differing expectations the importance of research was highlighted so that one was able to adapt both behaviour, as well as, the knowledge to the local context.

"First of all I would say these kind of fact finding missions (are needed) so researchers understanding the country better and then it is easier (cooperation)".

W3

It is important to remember that even though the data is presented using Szulanski's framework the interviewees were not necessarily referring to the different knowledge flows as knowledge transfers nor did they think of knowledge flows similarly to what the framework suggests. In addition the theory was originally designed to conceptualize and understand the internal knowledge flows that occur within different units of MNEs.

4.3. Transfer

The traditional sender-receiver model that concentrates on knowledge transfers cannot fully facilitate the complicated process of knowledge transfers, yet alone in the knowledge flows in the complex development sector. Nevertheless, the remaining chapter builds upon and complements Szulanski's (1996; 2000) framework for a more thorough understanding of what KM is in the development sector and what aspects of Szulanski's framework (1996; 2000) need to be adjusted.

One of the most criticized aspects of KM in development has been the use of transfer to describe knowledge flows. According to critics the word transfer indicates that knowledge is an object that can be easily sent between different units (Ferguson et al. 2010.) In the data the word *transfer* evoked several kinds of responses. However, all the interviewees agreed that the word transfer could not on its own describe the intended knowledge flows from Finland to Namibia. In addition, whether it is about transferring technology, implementing processes, selling solutions or sharing academic knowledge every transfer has a certain degree of localization that is needed and there are several factors that affect the transfers. Furthermore, transfer was seen as a smaller unit of the knowledge flows that should lead towards action that truly becomes to reside in the receiving part. Ownership and action would be the key to sustainable development interventions; therefore capacity building was seen as a more suitable term to describe the overall situation.

" -- we never actually used that word (transfer). We use the word transfer when we are talking more about technology transfer but now when we are talking about knowledge specifically, I would say it is collaboration, interaction, interplay, learning and the thing is kind of mutual learning and not really transfer." W2

"I like the term capacity building because capacity building doesn't say which way the capacity building is going. And it's also important that it's learning together so if you are transferring the knowledge, for me it means that you are just bringing your own knowledge but if you are having capacity building then you are learning also so the one who has the knowledge, they are also learning and improving their capacity." W3

This well describes the problems of the sender-receiver position, where knowledge is seen as being sent from a knowledgeable sender to a needing receiver. Clearly, there is an element of knowledge being transferred but it is not a one-way process and the final "sustainable knowledge" is created together with the recipient.

However, the word transfer was linked to smaller units of knowledge flows such as transferring technological solutions or certain systems, mechanisms or tools that would be similar in a specific domain and not dependent on the users location, cultural or educational background. This also highlights that the element of knowledge transfers is relevant also in the development sector.

“Well of course in development cooperation terms we talk about capacity building so well in a way I think in the business side it is perfectly ok to talk about technology or knowledge transfer, because that is clearly what Namibia needs. And maybe well we were talking about the education sector so there it might be different. I guess even for different technologies you need to do your research before you can tell that you have your ready made solution for Namibia.” W4

Furthermore, transferring technological solutions alone was not seen as a sustainable way of doing development work. All the interviewees indicated that their role as development workers is to support, facilitate different knowledge flows, consult, capacitate or work in advisory positions, so that the locals would gain knowledge and be able to develop their own skills. Therefore the Finnish workers position, as a knowledge worker, is not to make decisions or to implement the final solutions.

“You push them, I mean that is what we did we pushed them, we provided them with a whole lot of coffee so that they can sit down together and go through those discussions. -- it wasn't our battle to win.” W1

“I was working as an advisor or as an consultant for the local institutes and in that sense kind of a knowledge transfers were happening in many fronts.” W2

4.4 Situated Learning

Based on the literature and the data this part of the findings concentrates on the themes that provide answers to RQ2: What additional insights can situated

learning offer concerning the challenges of knowledge creation in development work settings? Therefore, even though some of the topics do overlap with the stickiness factor identified within Szulanski's (1996; 2000) these specific themes refer to the situated learning context.

As knowledge transfers are often seen as one-way processes displayed with a designated (knowledgeable) sender and a needing receiver (nevertheless complex), learning offers an optional practice. Specifically situated learning is context specific and situated mutual learning even further emphasizes relationships between different parties and different views. By challenging existing discourses and relationships learning can happen and truly exist.

Rather than referring to a simple one-way process all the interviewees viewed knowledge flows as a two-way mechanism where both participants are active learners. The data reveals clearly an element of social interaction that related to the complexity of both the amount of stakeholders involved but also the discourses of knowledge. In addition the worker's (n=4) identify knowledge transfers as interactive processes where both the sender and the receiver must be active participants in creating knowledge that is suitable for the local setting.

"And of course I think that an important part of the knowledge transfer was this engagement, you can't kind of force the information to the recipient but you have to get them interested and involved in the whole thing." W1

"And it's also important that it's learning together so if you are transferring the knowledge for me it means that you are just bringing your own knowledge. But if you are having capacity building then you are learning also so the one who has the knowledge they are also learning and improving their capacity." W3

"So I don't believe that the knowledge is actually one way from Finland to Namibia, in certain things definitely we have more information than Namibians but it can be, it should be both ways" W3

However, as development cooperation often does include donor money the recipients should also be held accountable for actions taken. Ownership and accountability are intertwined and lack of trust into local accountability can be a barrier to knowledge transfers.

“That is where we have the challenges often, local accountability is not there we can not trust (local accountability). I mean budget support mostly, we have had bad experiences because we can't trust public financial management systems, money disappears: If someone steals there are no mechanisms for punishment and even if we have decided to go forward and support that will have a backlash from the taxpayers when they hear that money disappeared “ W1

4.4.1 Location of Knowledge

One apparent theme that was found in the data and which illustrates well the complexity of development work is the diversity of knowledge sources, as well as, recipients in the development setting. The complexity of the knowledge sources illustrates why traditional sender-receiver models do not fully facilitate the knowledge flows in the development sector and how situated learning can offer optional solutions to knowledge creation that supports identifying the multiple stakeholders.

The complexity of the stakeholders is displayed in Figure 5. None of the cases studied included transfers between two units but between much larger audiences. Neither was there a clear knowledge flow directly from one Finnish sender to one Namibian recipient. The knowledge also existed in several different locations and to be able to transfer it, one has to take into consideration the complexity of the audience that was receiving the knowledge. As earlier mentioned, Finnish workers described themselves as to be in supporting positions to both provide the knowledge from different sources but also to distribute it to several directions. Knowledge reservoirs and the

intended receivers are presented in Figure 5. The grey color indicates Namibia, the blue color Finland and the white reservoirs and recipients that are both in Finland and Namibia.

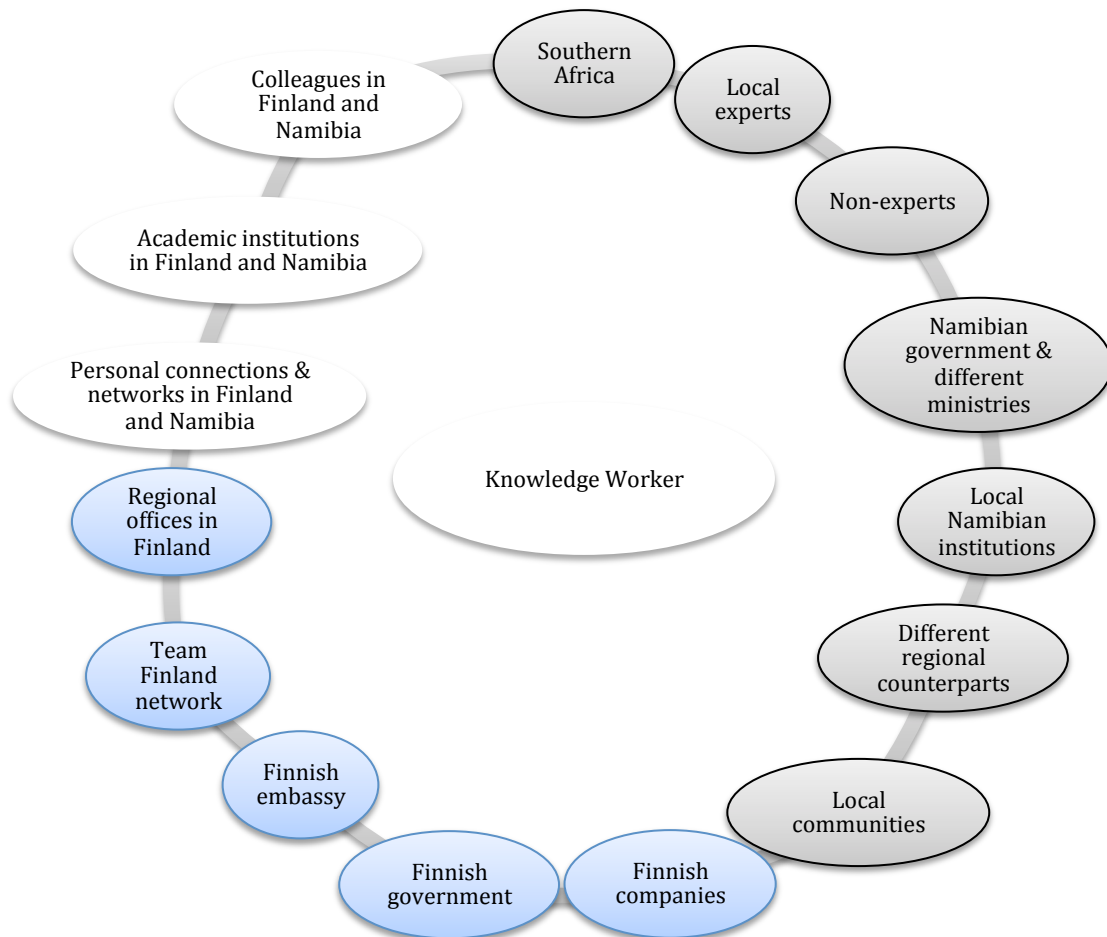


Figure 5. Knowledge Flows and Stakeholders.

4.4.2 Relationships and Donor Bias

Even though situated learning is based on the idea of eliminating donor bias through mutual learning and giving the voice for local knowledge, knowledge creation is still complicated and involves complicated relationships and power relations. What has traditionally been seen to be complicated in the donor-receiver relationships in the development sector is the unbiased relationship,

where the donor economies have the financial capacities that enable them to push their own personal agendas onto the recipient countries (Powell 2006). However, according to the interviewees this should not be the case, all four of the interviewees underlined the ownership of the interventions should be with the receiver country and that projects should provide a win-win situation for both participants. The importance of the relationship between the recipient and the donor was one theme that was clearly evident in all interviews. The importance of the relationship in transfer situations was linked to ownership or the interventions and furthermore to commitment that results into activity and sustainability.

The relationship aspect was significant in two ways first of all the broader relationship between Finland and Namibia that is related to power and agendas. And secondly the importance of the relationships between the smaller levels senders-receivers. More specifically, the relationships between the development worker and the intended recipients (the qualities of a specific sender were discussed in more detail in part 4.2 in connection to Szulanski's framework). Three out of the four interviewees highlighted that Finland has a very special relationship with Namibia and therefore cooperation and transfers have a good possibilities of being successful.

"I think Namibia is a unique country, especially the longstanding relationship with Finland, so it creates a very good environment for Finnish companies" W4

"I'd say that in a way we have the nice history between the countries that Namibia has been receiving the learning and information for more than 140 years. That is also one reason why it makes sense to cooperate so that helps Finland being the sender of the information that Namibians know that there is the knowledge from Finland and we have the close relationship. Even Martti Ahtisaari negotiated the independence for Namibia, so that helps that sender." W3

When discussing the need for knowledge and the problematic of the donor pushing their agendas on the recipient countries, all four interviewees agreed that the projects and the solutions were and should be based on the needs of the receiving countries. However, interestingly one interviewee raised the topic of the problematic behind the needs of the countries. If donors do not knowingly push their development agendas on the receiver countries there seems to nevertheless be a certain amount of foreign influence that might weaken the development of the recipient countries.

"In general donors have a tendency of pushing stuff through and recipients often they don't want to say no because it normally benefits them too even though it's not necessarily the way they want to do" W1

"While the donors can be blamed for pushing certain things through World Bank and international institutions often are very strong at pushing through something that works somewhere else, and bilateral donors not necessarily so many or not at least all of them. I think the chance is that often the recipient countries do not know what they want" W1

In addition:

"And there are too many parties within that country with different opinions and no do processes you don't go through the correct or extensive process to define what are the needs." W1

However, despite the receiving countries possible struggling to define their clear needs, international agreements have been made to try to ensure that the donor countries cannot contemptuously execute their own agendas and according to one worker Finland is rather successful in holding on to those principles:

"Finland and the Nordic countries we are quite good at keeping the principles of development cooperation latest of them being the Busan principles" W1

Within the relationship trust and was seen as prerequisites for successful knowledge flows and a possible way of avoiding barriers.

“Namibians really trust that Finland can offer really high quality technology good solutions and they have seen how Finland has brought in so many good things in the past so they kind of trust that Finns do a good job and Finns are reliable so you don’t have to like what you normally have to do in a business when you are building up your business relationships you need to build the trust first so I think here you can forget that step kind of because it is already excising so that is like a kind of good argument for Finnish companies to come and try”. W4

It was seen that trust could also help overcome certain barriers:

“So it’s really a kind of balance so you make the people to trust each other and then you can balance between these cultural differences.”W3

A central element to gaining trust and establishing good relations was a win-win situation for both. The win-win situation was seen to be used as an element to reduce the sender’s bias position of transferring “the right Western knowledge” but also to increase commitment from both sides to ensure sustainability.

“I think it’s about it’s not a easy answer for this but you have to get the locals to have the ownership of the thing otherwise it’s never going to work you can do nice research work and push money for development activities but if ownership of the locals that they feel it is a win- win situation it’s never going to happen so things die when Finnish people are for example leaving.” W3

“I think that it is mutually beneficial that we have our own interests and we can kind of bring it openly onto the table like now when we fund local companies to come up with new innovations it would be interesting and also important that they partner with Finnish entities so that Finnish entities can provide their own solutions and provide something for the local companies and they can jointly go into the SADC markets for example in that sense I’m not that much against kind of so to speak or if you wish yourself interest cause then you are also much more committed.”W2

Furthermore, building personal relationships between people were seen as a prerequisite for successful cooperation and trust.

“You need to be patient and more or less I guess it applies to everything but especially to Africa that things are best done with personal relations in the sense that you have to know the people and you have to earn their trust” W2

“And one success story is also that we have been traveling for so long to Namibia because human beings are more important than in Namibia you have to be onsite it is not enough that you are sending emails and hoping but you need to meet people face-to-face”. W3

The interviews clearly emphasized the importance of social interaction and collaboration and how therefore a simplistic view of knowledge transfers does not accommodate this need. It is important to highlight here that Szulanski (1996; 2000) did also identify the social nature of knowledge transfers, however, the underlying assumption was that knowledge is transferred from a sender (who has knowledge) to a receiver (that needs that certain knowledge). The problem with this view is that in the development sector is that, knowledge which comes from outside the community (a foreign sender) cannot resolve the complex problems that rise from the heterogeneous communities. Therefore, knowledge must be created locally to overcome the Northern bias and for the solutions to be sustainable.

4.4.3 Local Knowledge, Nordic and Finnish Knowledge

In the core of situated learning is the use of local knowledge. Development practitioners have highlighted the use of local knowledge is one of the key elements to ensure successful interventions. However, Finnish development work is strongly based on Finnish knowhow and expertise and it plays a central essential role in Finnish development work.

"To my understanding it is based quite a lot on Finnish knowhow at least in I would say in the (certain) domain cause we are appreciated and its known that in any of the (certain) comparisons Finland is ranked on the top of the world so to speak that is one thing, of course we rely on our expertise and our methods and things like that but we share them quite openly." W2

One argument for why Finnish knowledge is needed was that Finnish (Nordic) knowledge was seen as a way to gain faster, sustainable development.

"Yeah I think that there is the need for Nordic knowhow so to say that Namibia and other developing countries they can develop themselves but if they want to have a fast track it's much more convenient that you are asking from somebody who knows how to do it" W3

"—we have knowledge that they (Namibians) need". W3

"--the knowledge what Finland can bring it's not about the technology but it's the capacity building of the locals how they operate and maintain technology." W3

Namibian knowledge on the other hand was seen as understanding the local conditions to accommodate the Finnish solutions rather than as a solution itself.

"Of course local knowledge in the sense that those guys (locals) they knew much better the local circumstances in a sense at least how to collaborate how to form the partnerships with whom to form the partnerships etc. in that sense local knowledge of course and local knowledge whether it was around the local markets whether it was around local ecosystem" W2

"--you have to know this local conditions starting from the legislation, regulations local habits to make the business sustainable" W3

One of the interviewees furthermore questioned the true existence of Finnish knowhow.

"You normally have to domesticate the best practice but definitely there are and many of the things that are taking place in the African context they are not so

Northern practices we might have more Finnish versions of those practices but often those practices are taking place elsewhere too” W1

One factor that directly affects Finnish development work are the changes that are prominent in the development sector, interestingly one worker spoke about them very openly.

“The rules of the game have changed, this traditional Northern concept of development cooperation doesn’t exist anymore or is becoming irrelevant, there are so many more actors; the Chinese with billions and billions that they bring into the African continent so the recipients they don’t really care that much about our development cooperation anymore in many places when we go and talk to the government; they don’t ask for development cooperation they ask for investments, we don’t listen to them. Within the ministry often you tell that they still want development cooperation even if they say the contradictory. I mean they say we need investment (the recipient), we (sender) don’t want to hear and we can’t even provide it either because it is up to the companies to go”. W1

Similarly, to the various actors in the development field another interviewee illustrated it is not just Finnish knowledge that is valued but there are also several other players in the field who have knowledge to offer.

“--you have to remember the fact is that it is not just Finland or other Nordic countries in Namibia there is Germany there is Chinese and so on”.

5. DISCUSSION

This chapter includes the analysis of the findings; the main purpose of the analysis is to answer the research questions. The chapter will first discuss overall findings related to knowledge transfers in the development sector and then the stickiness factors of knowledge from the viewpoint of development workers; this will provide an answer for RQ1 How does knowledge stickiness affect knowledge transfer from the global development worker's perspective? After answering the first question the remaining data will be used to answer RQ2. What additional insights can situated learning offer concerning the challenges of knowledge creation in development work settings?

5.1 Development Workers as Knowledge Workers

As the findings presented none of the workers included in the study had any formal education in KM. Nevertheless, all of the workers indicated that knowledge, finding the knowledgeable people, getting people interested in the knowledge and finding opportunities where the recipient could use the knowledge actively to better their own lives, was a part of their work. Therefore, it is safe to say that the fundamental idea of KM in the development context is being fulfilled. As Ferguson et al (2010) illustrate: KM and learning should ultimately lead to sustainable changes in the development beneficiaries, so that the beneficiaries themselves can capitalize on knowledge and learning and become self-sufficient. (Ferguson et al. 2010). However, it is important to add that none of the interviewees or the interviewer used the term knowledge work or knowledge worker at any point of the interview. Therefore, it would be wrong to say that the worker's would have spontaneously identified knowledge as being in the core of development work as the researchers (Ferguson et al. 2010) suggest.

As Vaara et al. (2010) and Szulanski (1996) have emphasized knowledge exists in individual workers and therefore only committed individuals who are capable, as well as, willing to transfer and receive knowledge are a prerequisite for successful knowledge transfers. The capability and willingness play a central role in the development workers day-to-day life since barriers to knowledge flows are many and the complexity of the development sector goes beyond the corporate world. As was illustrated earlier in Figure 5, development workers work within and between not one or two national or corporate cultures but beyond national borders, institutional differences, local cultures, amongst well educated people, experts and non-experts, under the eyes of local authorities and governments, pressured from several stakeholders and under the rule of different legislations and written and unwritten rules and myths. This underlines one of the most significant challenges with KT in the development sector related to the traditional sender-receiver model. Whereas, the sender-receiver model identifies a knowledgeable sender and a needing receiver this rarely applies in the development sector.

However, what makes the already challenging situation even more challenging is the range of expectations that are laid upon the projects that the development workers contribute toward. As mentioned earlier, one reason why managing in the development context has been studied so little is the complexity of the sector. If the corporate world can base its existence on making profit, development organisations promote development. Yet, as the data revealed one problem that was identified was that there are competing interests of what development is and how it can be achieved. Therefore, the ambiguity and complexity of the whole sector can be viewed as a central stickiness factor that development workers have rather little power over.

5.2 Local Knowledge

Most of the theories developed around KM have been created in the Northern hemisphere, as well as, the knowledge that is used to develop the Southern counterparts. What makes this problematic is the connection between financial recourses and knowledge, as the North has been the primary contributor of financial recourses, it has also adopted the role as the primary knowledge distributor. Furthermore, the knowledge that resides in the North has gained a superior position that has resulted in the assumption that best practices and knowledge reside in the North and donor economies. It has been argued that the Northern world has for long been in the position to show the Southern hemisphere the direction of development often being unsuccessful (Ferguson et al 2010; Ferguson 2016; Powell 2006). As a result many developing countries are left in a situation of ambiguity where the needs of the country are not clear and therefore, the development workers need to balance not only with the diversity of the stakeholders but also with the differing expectations and interest.

As the Western solutions have in many cases failed the South, the Southern counterparts are looking into utilizing more local knowledge to enable sustainable inventions (Ferguson et al. 2010). This sets further challenges for the development workers to be able to work with several discourses of knowledge and to be able to disseminate and leverage knowledge flows that come from elsewhere than the North. The data illustrated that development workers have to use multiple methods to be able to use local knowledge and at the same time offer knowledge from outside (Figure 5).

As the use of local knowledge has been identified to be curtail for sustainable and successful development interventions (Ferguson & Huysman 2009) it again

puts the traditional sender-receiver theories under pressure. As Szulanski's (1996; 2000) theory has been much criticized, it is important to illustrate the main reason why it may not be suitable as such in the development sector. Where as the stickiness factors try to ease and facilitate the challenges that occur during knowledge transfers, the development sector underlines that knowledge should not be adapted into the new circumstances but it should be created in the circumstances. And there, the knowledge workers play an important role is evaluating what knowledge can be transferred and what has to be constructed in the local environment. Therefore it is also crucial that the traditional sender-receiver is not the only tool used to study and analyze knowledge flows. This was illustrated in the data by how the workers referred to the knowledge flows. There was a clear understanding that knowledge was created in collaboration and that Finnish knowledge was just a part of the knowledge creation process that was done in collaboration with the locals. If knowledge was just transferred and exposed, it lacked commitment. In addition, the development plans and strategies needed to be adjusted in Namibia when the local circumstances and needs were understood adequately. Therefore, another significant stickiness factor in the development sector is knowledge itself. Knowledge can not be solely transferred from outside to tackle local problems, but it must be created using a significant amount of local knowledge.

5.2.1 Finnish Knowledge

As the Finnish development policy states one of Finland's main principles in development work is that Finland has the correct knowhow and expertise in several areas (disability, business, energy etc) and that there is a demand for Nordic know-how (Ministry for Foreign Affairs 2016). As development practitioners have identified the lack of local knowledge to be one of the main factors leading to fail and unsustainable development inventions (Ferguson &

Huysman 2009), success and success factors were studied from the viewpoint of local knowledge and ownership of development inventions.

According to the findings the development workers viewed Finnish knowledge and expertise both valuable, as well as wanted. One reason for this was that Namibia and Finland have a long relationship. Another reason was that Finland is seen as an ethical partner that follows development cooperation policies and is trustworthy. In addition, consensus amongst the workers was that power and ownership of the projects should be with the recipient country. The ownership thought is linked to the role that Finnish workers play in the knowledge related activities. Finnish workers clearly identified themselves as facilitators rather than active developers or decision makers. And saw that Finnish knowledge can be a fast track to development but it does not facilitate the needs of Namibia without localization.

Ownership of development inventions gives more autonomy to the recipient country and should allow more use of local knowledge. Based on the literature, only knowledge that has prominently been created in the local context can contribute towards sustainable and successful development interventions (Ferguson & Huysman 2009). Similar conclusions can be made from the data but one has to be careful, not to interpret the data in bias to correspond to the literature. Even though the workers all agreed that there are very rare instances where knowledge can be directly transferred, the main argument was that people have to be capacitated. With capacitating one might mean that people are freed and capacitated to create their own knowledge and take responsibility of their county's development, however based on the current data the issue remains vague.

What was interesting was the view that Finnish knowledge could be used to fast forward development in Namibia. However, as foreign solutions have been viewed as insufficient to solve local problems it might be that the intended fast-forwarding only leads to crippling the recipient. Knowledge workers have a significant role in estimating what knowledge can work in local conditions especially since the recipients are not in a position to refuse help.

5.3 Sticky Knowledge

Even though the traditional sender-receiver transfer theories have been criticized to portray knowledge transfers in a too simplistic way, the data revealed that the theory can be used as a framework to understand knowledge flows, especially transfers. As the ideas and experiences of development workers and knowledge management have not been studied thoroughly in the past, Szulanski's (1996; 2000) framework provided a feasible tool to conceptualize different stickiness factors.

The word *transfer* has been seen to be too simple to describe how knowledge should be used in the development setting, the development workers agreed with this to some extent. As local knowledge needs to be taken into considerations words such as collaboration, learning, capacity building and sharing were used more than the word transfer. One argument why transfer is not enough to describe the needed processes in development work is the fact that as past experiences are usually codified into different databases they lose the tacit nature that is needed to solve the complex challenges faced in the development sector (Krohinkel-Karlsson 2007; Ferguson et al 2010).

Nevertheless, the complexity of the word transfer seems to be underestimated in the development sector. As the results showed several of the stickiness

factors that the development workers identified were related to the complexity of the context, therefore it is justified to say that Szulanski's network does accommodate also to the development work. However, to gain a deeper understanding of the complexity and the nature of the complexity situated mutual learning and mutual learning can be used as methods, despite that the stickiness factors can still remain the same.

5.3.1 Factors and Characters

If we look specifically at Szulanski's (1996; 2000) factors and the characteristics of stickiness, the development workers identified all the factors. Where as Finnish knowledge was seen as creditable, casual ambiguity was identified. As Finland has a lot of knowhow and expertizes defining what is transferred and what would best accommodate the needs is challenging. Similarly, to the knowledge Finland as a sender was seen credible, mostly due to the long relationship that Finland and Namibia have. However, the motivation of Finns was identified as a possible barrier since Finns might have the wrong image of what Namibia is and what it has to offer.

The two stickiness characters that were identified to affect knowledge transfers most were the receiver (Namibia) and the context where the transfer was happening. Because of differences in both national and corporate culture, knowledge flows could be hindered. Regarding the recipient there was a variety, within one project there were people who were motivated and willing to receive knowledge but also people who opposed to the new knowledge. One of the most common problems to achieving sustainable results, active use of knowledge, was the conflicting interest of some parties participating in the projects. Specifically in the case of Namibia political will is needed to getting projects implemented and this lacked in some of the cases.

Furthermore, similarly to the receivers' motivation, skills and capabilities also varied causing stickiness in some occasions. However, the most commonly identified stickiness factor was the context. The context was relevant in mainly two ways. Firstly as country level, where political issues came into the way of being and people who were capacitated, or received the knowledge were not able to use it. Secondly, the context in the sense that plans that had been made in Finland would not really fit the Namibian context because the needs were different or the expectations were different. However based on the data gathered from the Finnish workers it is clear to say that the stickiness factors do exist in the development sector whether or not we name the flows transfers.

5.4 Situated Mutual Learning

The facilitator's role may bring challenges for the development workers since there are not so many indicators of what successful knowledge transfers should be. In the corporate sector a successful transfer will be visible in the final (integration) stage of transfers when the organisation has implemented the new methods and processes into the corporate culture and they can see that productivity is rising. (Szulanski 2000.) Therefore, within the corporate sector profit making drives most actions. However, when working with countries and governments the needs and wants can vary greatly between the different stakeholders and complicate knowledge flows starting from what it is that is needed? Who needs it? From where do we get what we need? And how are the needs satisfied in practice? As ownership of development projects is now emphasized to be with the recipient country, the needs and wishes of the recipient country should be the ones that determine what and how projects are done, as well as, what they should achieve, this furthermore underlines the advisory position of the development workers. Therefore, due to the nature of

development work, foreign workers are not in the position to decide on how things should be done or if transfers have been successful.

As Ferreira & Neto (2005) distinguished there is a difference between managing corporate culture and trying to manage culture of local societies. The collected data underlines the need to take several players into consideration, In the development sector knowledge is very rarely moved from one unit to another by the development worker but the development worker has to work with many different actors and has to adjust ones actions according to the specific target or target groups and stakeholders.

As mentioned, knowledge in the development context should be constructed together with the locals; it should be relevant to the surrounding. However, for this to happen locals have to be willing to share relevant knowledge and the development worker must be able to evaluate what knowledge can be transferred from outside. This sets challenges for development workers to be able to identify the core knowledge that can and should be transferred and how it can be newly constructed into the foreign surrounding. In the data the development workers stated that for example some technical solutions were seen as ones that can be transferred just as long they can be scaled to the local needs. Similarly, people who are educated and work within the same sector or scientific domain can transfer knowledge rather easily from one another if needed, without changing the actual message.

If knowledge transfers lack the ability to truly capacitate local knowledge creation, situated learning offers a way to facilitate to the heterogeneous group of people involved in the development inventions. As the literature review presented, situated learning involves a practice-based view of knowledge

similar to the social learning theory, where knowledge emerges from social interaction, socially constructed practices and relationships between different stakeholders. Social interaction was one of the main themes that was found in the data and that was seen as a prerequisite for successful knowledge flows. Based on the data we can say that local knowledge was used, local experts were used as consultants, local policies are the ones that facilitate processes and local actors are brought to Finland to be more engaged in what Finland can offer.

Figure 6 further elaborates the importance of social interaction for successful interventions. The interviewees highlighted the human factor in knowledge, where knowledge creation and transfer must be bound to human action. This view supports the view of tacit knowledge *“Tacit knowledge ‘cannot be ‘captured’, ‘converted’ or ‘transferred’, but only displayed and manifested, in what we do’”* (Tsoukas, 2003: 410). A successful relationship is based on trust that in the Namibian context might require a lot of time to build. The workers highlighted the importance of investing time into creating long-lasting relationships. However, based on the long shared history Finns have in Namibia the majority of the workers thought that Finns have good chances of forming fruitful relationships and in general Finnish people are wanted partners in both the development and private sector. Through a trustworthy relationship collaboration can begin, however collaboration should happen openly and according to the data a win-win situation can diminish possible failure, since shared gains ensures equal commitment. In an ideal case collaboration and commitment would then create knowledge that truly resides in the active participating members and this kind of locally produced knowledge would capacitate people to act and gain sustainable results.

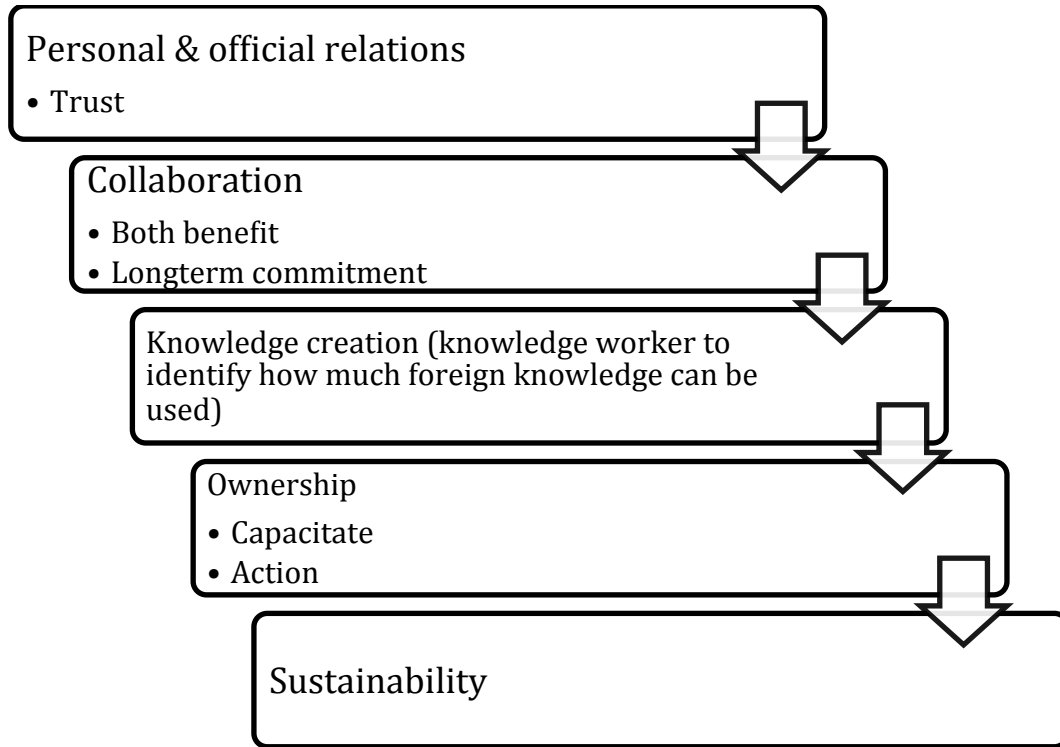


Figure 6. Relationship and Action Towards Sustainability.

5.5 Summary

As explorative research, this study aimed to gain in-depth knowledge about a certain phenomena; knowledge transfers in the development sector. Based on the literature review there was a strong presumption that Szulanski's (1996; 2000) theory of sticky knowledge that derives from the business sector could not facilitate all the needs of the development sector. After examining the data together with the literature two assumptions can be made. *Firstly*, stickiness factors found in the business sector can be the same as in the development sector.

Secondly, the underlying difference is not in the stickiness of knowledge but in the way that knowledge is dealt with. Knowledge must be created in the local context. As for the business sector knowledge transfers and best practices are

acknowledged and do exist. However, in the development sector the knowledge cannot be transferred to the same extent. Because of the diversity of the stakeholders and the complexity of the societies where knowledge is used, localizing foreign knowledge is not enough to solve the complicated problems within the societies. Therefore knowledge must be created in the local context to be able to solve local problems.

However, for example the theory of social learning in the business sector does offer insight of how social interaction, which is much used in the development sector, could offer more efficient tools to knowledge sharing and creating in the development sector. Simultaneously, Szulanski's (1996; 2000) stickiness factors can be used as a tool to identify stickiness in the development sector. Whether or not, we talk about transfers of creating knowledge in collaboration, understanding and examining the characters present in the Szulanski's theory can offer us valuable insight. As for, even though the development workers did not talk inclusively of the four factors; knowledge, sender, receiver and message, they do have a prominent role in knowledge flows and creation from the knowledge workers' perspective. This results to the *third* point development workers and the communities together must find the balance between knowledge transfers used to fast-forward development and integrating the knowledge into the locally created knowledge.

Lastly, for knowledge to truly contribute to successful interventions, the recipients must be able to more clearly define the goals of what is needed and wanted, what is understood as successful intervention. For this to be possible power and the complicated ties related to financial recourses must be questioned and ownership of interventions must truly be amongst the recipient nations.

To answer to the second question; What additional insights can situated learning offer concerning the challenges of knowledge creation in development work settings? Based on the findings in literature and from the data gathered in the interviews situated learning can decrease Nordic (foreign) bias and with active participation enforce recipient ownership of the interventions to increase success and sustainability. Situated learning offers a platform for knowledge creation and corresponds to the activities that the knowledge workers describe as being part of their knowledge related activities presented in table 5.

6. CONCLUSION

The last chapter concludes the thesis by first presenting the theoretical contributions and then concluding the knowledge into managerial implications. In the last part limitations of the study are discussed and suggestions are made for further research.

6.1 Theoretical Contributions

This study's main contribution to the field of knowledge management in the field of development work is the exploration of the usefulness of Szulanski's (1996, 2000) framework. Furthermore, it contributes to understanding the knowledge flows between Finland and Namibia and what the position of the development worker is regarding these knowledge flows.

Secondly, it contributes to understanding the different qualities and dimensions of knowledge such as the critical aspects of power and the origin of knowledge and how they impact the successfulness of knowledge interventions.

Thirdly, and most profoundly the thesis outlines the differences of KM between the business and development sector, but furthermore utilizes both domains to better understand why knowledge actually matters.

6.2 Managerial Implications

As for managerial contributions, the study highlights the importance of the use of local knowledge, amongst development practitioners. It also suggests that the right way of approaching local knowledge is through social interaction. Development workers play a pivotal role in knowledge creation and if countries want to fast track their development with knowledge transfers from

other countries, development workers are in a central role to facilitate the transfers together with local knowledge creation.

However, for development workers entering Namibia it is crucial to have an open mind when planning projects and cooperation. Furthermore, to be able to use local knowledge, time and personal relationships are required to gain both trust and commitment of the local counterparts. In addition, attention should be directed to social interaction and assessing the different motivations, skills and capabilities of the stakeholders to participate in knowledge creation. Time and resources should be invested into facilitating social interaction between different stakeholders.

As strong relationships and trust were indicated as prerequisites for successful knowledge flows, development interventions should be designed to encourage and enable the forming of relationships. It would also be beneficial to look deeper into the managerial approaches that engage people into true interaction and through that collaboration and knowledge creation.

6.3 Limitations of the Study and Further Research

Due to the scope of the Master's thesis the study contains certain limitations. As Polonsky & Waller (2011) argue research always has limitations. The limitations can be related to both the research process as well as to the author's skills and abilities. However, recognizing the limitations can be seen as an advantage since it is seen as a critical and objective way of looking at research. Being aware of limitations requires the author to be aware of one's choices and reasoning. (Polonsky & Waller 2011: 198-199.) The limitations can be divided into two areas, theoretical limitations and methodological limitations.

As for the theoretical limitations the study was able to cover only a small part of the available theories in KM. Furthermore, as both the KM scene and the development work sector contain extensive amounts of theories and research this thesis was able to grasp only a small part of both fields. In addition, even though using different theories combined offered an interesting and challenging viewpoint, choosing one approach could have produced more consistent and in-depth data.

In addition, for the methodological limitations as an explorative study this thesis only displayed a friction of what development work is and what role knowledge plays in it. The limited amount of interviews (4) can be seen as the biggest weakness of the study. Even though the workers represent different fields of development work the representation is small and the data can offer only parts of understanding to the reality of the development workers in a specific context.

What became evident during the research is that Finnish development work is under transition. Where as Finnish knowledge is appreciated, Finns are not the only ones in the field. Moreover, as the traditional development funds are transferred into stimulants to support the private sector to take a more active role in the development sector the rules of the game are changing. As the private sector works on a profitmaking basis, it would be interesting to study how private sector players function in the development field. Furthermore, as the thesis revealed, even though the purpose of this study is not to justify the reasons behind development work it would be important to study the current practices of development work and if it is sustainable. Especially, in the light of the data raising the view that development cooperation might no more be the desired form of international cooperation between countries.

As the importance of relationship and social interaction was highlighted throughout the study, both in the literature review and the empirical part, studying the relationship more would give valuable information of how knowledge is created and what factors affect creating usable knowledge. When looking at the importance of knowledge creation happening in the local context, it would be valuable to look into the heterogeneous relationships that exist in the context and see what kind of mechanisms and tools are used and how KM can help create knowledge. In addition, this study only looks at knowledge flows regarding two countries Finland and Namibia, and only from the viewpoint of Finnish workers. To get a more complete image of the knowledge transfers it would be important to hear the voices and experiences of the Namibian counterparts and other member included in the knowledge related activities.

Furthermore, as this study only examined the surface of what kind of knowledge is relevant in the development sector it would be beneficial to study the knowledge discourses in more detail to really understand what kind of knowledge is needed. In addition, this study did not investigate the different stages involved in knowledge transfers and creation, as this is a topic that has already been studied in the corporate world, the development sector could benefit from similar studies and be able to correspond to the challenges that occur in different details more efficiently. Lastly, as this study did not look into the success of the development interventions involved in the empirical part, it would be necessary for the future development of KM in the development sector to provide studies that follow KM throughout the interventions and provide real evidence of knowledge used to achieve successful development amongst the beneficiaries.

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APPENDIX

Dear interviewee

The topic of my study is knowledge management (KM) in development work between Finland and Namibia. More specifically knowledge transfers and what affects how well knowledge flows and is implemented.

With KM I mean any processes and practices concerned with the creation, acquisition, capture, sharing and use of knowledge, skills and expertise. However, I would like you to think specifically of situations that evolve tacit knowledge:

- Knowledge we have but use unconsciously, consisting of habits and culture that we do not know that we know.
- Knowledge embedded in individual members, organizational tasks, routines and knowledge that it is hard to identify and codify and share with others for example in emails and memos.

Please try to think of real-life situations and examples to illustrate your answers. The interview will be recorded and it should take around 40minutes to 1hour. All personal information, details referring to your profession or the people in the examples will be confidential. And all interviewees have full anonymity in the thesis.

Thank You.

Interview structure.

Date of Interview:

Personal information:

Please tell me something about yourself who you are and what you do?

Years of working in Namibia:

Warm up

Are you familiar with the concept of knowledge management?

Yes: Can you please describe in what kinds of jobs have you worked involving KM?

No: Ok do you have an idea of what it could mean?

Role of knowledge

What kind of knowledge was/is relevant for your work?

(you can use your own terms or refer to tacit and explicit if familiar with terms, expertise knowledge, how to get things done, individual knowledge, institutional knowledge)

What kind of role did/does knowledge play in your work in Namibia?

Transfer/sharing

Could you please describe what kind of knowledge was transferred and shared?

Please describe in what kinds of situations was knowledge shared or transferred?

What kinds of methods were used?

How was/is knowledge sharing/transfers evaluated?

Does the success of transferring knowledge affect the success of development interventions? Please explain.

If you think the way that knowledge is used in your work would you use the term transfer or are there words that could better describe the movement of knowledge?

Do best practices exist?

Success and barriers

Traditionally in the sender-receiver model there are four factors that affect knowledge flows sender, receiver, knowledge and context, now lets take a few minutes to take a closer look at each of these factors. Please try to think of both positive and negative attributes towards knowledge flows.

Presumably you are the sender of knowledge, how would you describe your role and how it affects the success of knowledge flows?

Similarly what kind of role does the receiver play?

How about the specifically knowledge that is used? How does the nature of knowledge affect the interventions?

Lastly the context, Namibia-Finland context but also the specific context that you work in, how does it affect knowledge flows?

The Finnish (Northern) Perspective

Finland's one main principle in the existing development policy is that Finland has the correct knowhow and expertise in several areas (disability, business, energy etc.) and that there is a demand for Nordic know-how.

To what degree do you perceive Finnish development work to be based on knowledge and knowhow (knowledge intensive?)

How is local knowledge taken into account? And can Nordic know-how be problematic when it is implemented in the South? Is there a power/knowledge bias?

Something about the shift from the development world to the corporate world?

Would you like to add anything else?